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ABSTRACT

California Librarian, the official periodical of the California Library Association, includes in its April 1974 issue: an article on high school media programs and problems, a study of graduate students' attitudes toward librarians and media specialists, a discussion of the use of supply-demand equalization in evaluating collection adequacy, a method for determining what resources may be available in various libraries of a cooperative system, a history of copyrights, an explanation of how the ideas of Ivan Illich apply to libraries, and a discussion and bibliography of useful law books for citizens. (LS)

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Official Periodical of the California Library Association Inc.

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MEDIA MADNESS

Has anyone called you a median? How about a medium? Some of us may answer to "media specialist," while some impressive offices even sport signs proclaiming the presence of an "educational technologist." If you have not yet been called into any of these vocations, you soon will be! What's shaking up our field so much that some of us are deserting the time-honored title of librarian?

Was it a spin-off from sputnik that moved audiovisual materials into the traditional library center in the late fifties? Sure, there was some audiovisual material around long before that. Remember the lantern slide and stereopticon? After sputnik, though, it may have seemed logical to some that the book had let us down. The Russians took the first leap into space, and it was well known that the Russian people were not given freedom to read. The natural assumption, then , was that readers would never be spacemen.

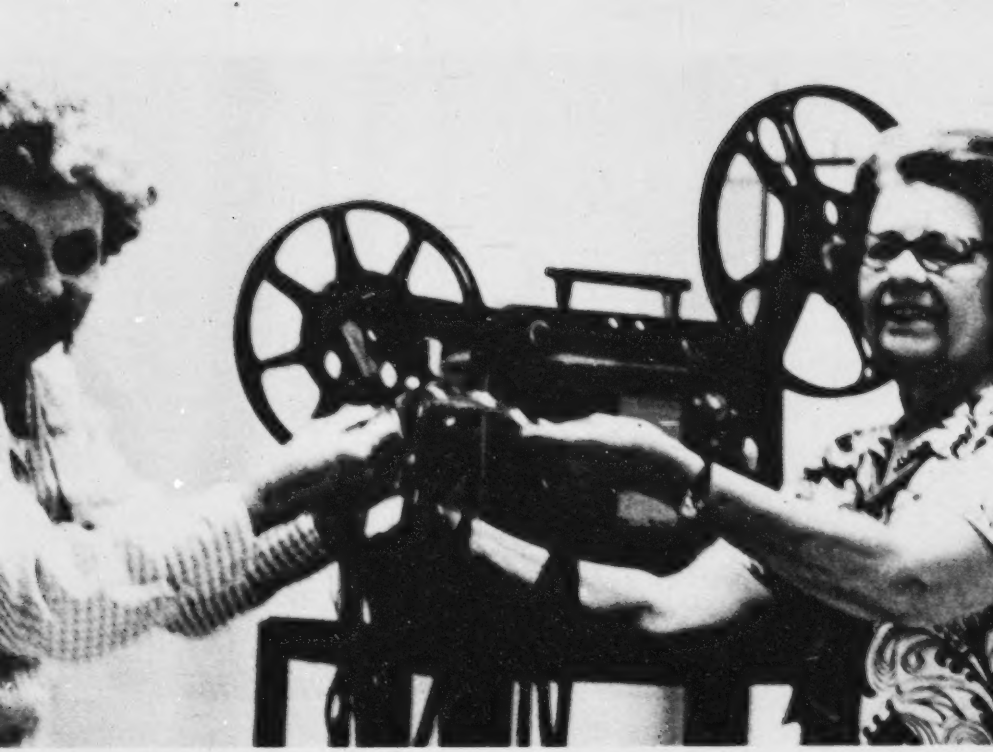
Was it our new fascination with technology that brought audio-visual materials into the library? Television was sweeping the country and its educational possibilities were obvious. (Except, that is, to most who have been producing it ever since.) How intimidated were we by the development of computers of the fourth and fifth generation speaking languages that only a few of us could decipher?

As we look around our field these days, we are forced to ponder these questions. Even as some answers come, we then must take the next logical step and ask still other questions:

How successful has this merger really been? How much has it cost? How many new patrons has it brought? Where would library service be without this amalgamation? Sometimes I stop to wonder if indeed we can hope to measure all of the effects of this change in traditional library services.

While we give some serious thought to these questions, I hope we can also pause to consider the humorous side of media services, or, to put our predicament more accurately, our services as "medians." I have long considered myself almost unable to tune a radio, but I try to look intelligent when the conversation centers on woofers or capacitors. I can get away with it as long as no one asks me to *do* anything about the hardware or material of media services.

There have been a few times lately



when my smattering of knowledge has not been enough. Like most lucky library supervisors I have a gem of a staff who never let me down in any department as long as they're around to cover the bases.

On a recent rare occasion when our A-V wizard was recuperating from surgery, I blithely undertook supervision of our total media situation, as befits any overconfident media director (wouldn't *you*?) The first few hours I was sensationally successful, thanks to excellent training of student crews. Picture, if you will, my reaction when suddenly the door flew open and four students marched in bearing a waste basket full of jumbled 16mm film spaghetti. Six hours later our crew had spliced the film, but only after six or seven viewings were our teachers able to correct all the sequences and pronounce the operation a success. I had to bribe the teachers to get them to keep looking at that film until we had it right!

We thought we finally had the answer to scratchy, recordings by taping every one. As we had several interpretations of *Hamlet* on discs, we made supposedly tamperproof cassettes of each. Apparently we had it made! Our students were checking out these cassettes regularly. One of our better students sequentially checked out each version over a period of days. We thought he was comparing performances of various Hamlets. He finally returned the last version in complete frustration and revealed to us that some gremlin had edited Shakespeare down to Alfred E. Newman on each of our cassettes. Watergate upon the Globe!

Could Mary Norton's Borrowers be

using the plastic filmstrip containers as porta-potties on their camping trips? Where else could these necessary little nothings have gone? And which Pandora switches filmstrips from little box to little box until nobody can tell what's what? Enthusiastic teachers have reported chagrin in finding sound and picture not matching during class time despite their careful planning.

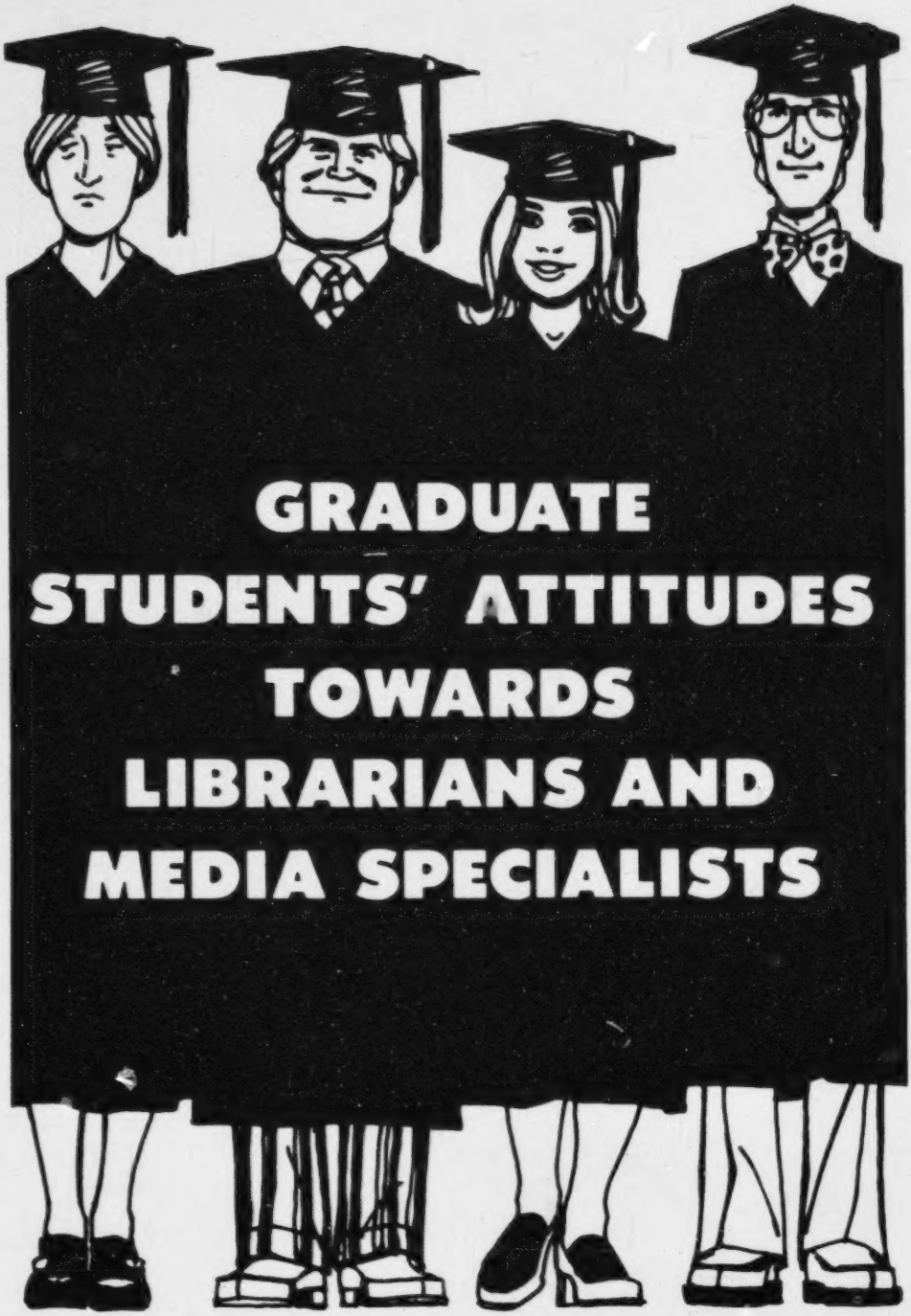
All of us like to think we run a tight ship,but today's media involvement occasionally makes our operation look more like the "ship of fools." We spend a great proportion of our time and energy managing a mass of materials which we are loath to evaluate.

I will feel more confident about the learning possibilities of filmstrips and tapes when someone begins to publish indexes with them. I will feel more confident about managing their storage and retrieval when "tamper-proof" turns out to be just that.

Last week when regaling my family with the latest tragedy, my ancient 18-year old daughter said, "I guess you can give a teenager anything, from a book to a brick, and he'll find a way to break it."

Is she right? Are the futurist gurus right? How do we manage this madness?

ALICE THOMPSON
Librarian
Palo Alto Senior High School



GRADUATE STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS LIBRARIANS AND MEDIA SPECIALISTS

In the library profession, there is a widespread awareness of the librarian's lack of proficiency in the use of non-print materials. D. Marie Grieco wrote:

> *Although there is growing awareness that libraries must expand into multimedia centers, progress has been hampered by misconceptions about the role of nonprint media, widespread aversion to audiovisual equipment, and the lack of indepth direction from library schools, organizations, and journals.*[1]

Educational communication experts, while agreeing with the increasing importance of non-print materials, are concerned with the role of the media (audiovisual) specialist in the educational institution. In James W. Brown's article "AV and Library: Complement or Merge," one reads: "For unless merging enables us to catalyze, to release and to magnify the beneficial effects of professional educational media services, the process seems hardly worth the effort."[2]

This is a summary of a study based upon the views of students in the University of Hawaii Graduate School of Library Studies and Educational Communication Graduate Department towards librarians and media specialists. In the study, media specialists were defined as "people trained to work largely with non-print materials." Librarians were defined as "people trained to work largely with print materials."

A questionnaire was distributed at the University of Hawaii during the Fall Semester of 1972. Twenty-seven of over 140 library school students were compared with twenty-seven of over 70 graduate students in the educational communication graduate department.

The questionnaire was self-administered with voluntary returns; a computer was used for simple tabulation. The return rate was over sixty percent for both groups. An administrative decision was made to terminate the study when twenty-seven questionnaires had been returned by each group.

Table one shows many more females than males in the library group. However, males constituted the majority of the educational communication group. One library student did not answer this question. This table also indicates that library students were usually younger than the educational communication students.

Finally, table one indicates that 14 educational communication students have taken courses in the library school, and five library students have participated in the educational communication graduate department's program.

Both groups of respondents were asked to judge librarians on a seven point semantic differential scale for eleven attitudes. Next, media specialists were judged on the identical attitudes. These attitudes appeared in the same order for both librarians and media specialists.

The seven point scale was used to permit freedom of expression by the respondent. As the mean scores increased, it was assumed that the level of expression also increased. In general, the library students exhibited stronger responses than the educational communication students.

Reviewing the responses for the media specialist (Figure one) general accord by both groups of students is the most consistent characteristic. The differences that do occur seem to be inconsequential.

Generally, both groups saw the media specialist as a person who

was somewhat friendly, interested in athletics, some interest in books, fairly quick to accept new ideas, happy by nature, mechanically oriented, fairly creative, careful on the job, able to communicate clearly, and not overly concerned with rules.

The largest difference in responses between the two groups presents itself on the attitude concerning mechanical orientation. For this attitude, the mean rating of library students was a positive 2.19 compared to the more neutral response of 1.36 by the educational communication students. One explanation could be that people tend to attribute exaggerated expertise to others (media specialist) in areas of felt weakness. Library students may have given the media specialist more esteem in mechanical ability than is fair.

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A distinctly strong response by the educational communication students toward the media specialist occurred on the attitude for acceptance of new ideas. The mean for this attitude was 2.11. This mean might demonstrate a willingness by this group of students to attempt innovative solutions to problems.

Figure two depicts librarians. Similar to figure one, there is a considerable degree of agreement by both populations of respondents towards librarians. Generally, both felt the librarian was friendly, not very interested in athletics, very interested in books, somewhat creative, curious, very careful on the job, able to communicate, and quite concerned with rules.

However, there were two attitudes which showed disagreement between the library students and educational communication students. These attitudes were happiness and curiosity. Library students felt noticeably stronger, with a mean rating of 1.19, that librarians were happy by nature. Educational communication students gave librarians a neutral .27 mean for this attitude. The educational communication students judged the librarian as .68 mean rating for curiosity. This is in contrast to the stronger 1.41 for the library students view of the librarian's curiosity. One possible factor for these differences may be the trend by library students to strongly express their feelings.

The foremost response in figure two by the educational communication students, a mean rating of 2.15, occurred with the attitude of being careful on the job. This group also rated the librarian as quite concerned with rules. The library students' strongest response toward librarians occurred with a 2.00

mean rating for highly interested in books and reading.

By comparing these two student groups' general views, it is apparent that librarians and media specialists have similar means for friendliness. Librarians are judged by both groups to be profusely interested in books. Media specialists are viewed to be able to accept new ideas more easily than librarians. Both groups equally rated the media specialist and librarian for happiness by nature. The media specialist is seen by both groups as having more mechanical ability than the librarian.

There seemed to be a widespread feeling that the media specialist was more creative than the librarian. Yet, the media specialist and librarian were rated equal in their degree of curiosity by the two groups. The librarian is also seen as being more careful on the job than the media specialist. Both were rated approximately the same on their ability to communicate. Finally, the librarian was judged by both groups as having a great deal more concern for rules than the media specialist.

In conclusion, the greatest potential for discord between the future media specialist and librarian may develop over rules. Librarians are viewed by both groups as being much more concerned with rules than the media specialist. Another possible divergent viewpoint on this scale pertains to the willingness of each group to accept new ideas. Media specialists are judged by both groups as willing to try new ideas; librarians are seen as less likely to try new ideas.

It seems that the librarian still has that little old lady image. She is judged as concerned with rules, highly interested in books and not likely to try new ideas. Many librarians would probably like to change this image. Media specialists were usually viewed by both groups to have a positive image. They were popularly judged as quick to accept new ideas. However, media specialists would probably like to lessen their mechanical orientation image.

Finally, these results may actually show a stereotyped image of librarians and audiovisual specialists held by two student groups at the University of Hawaii. If this is the case, both groups need to determine if the image is accurate, and if it is, how these two unique resource specialists can achieve the greatest productivity for the institutions in which they work.

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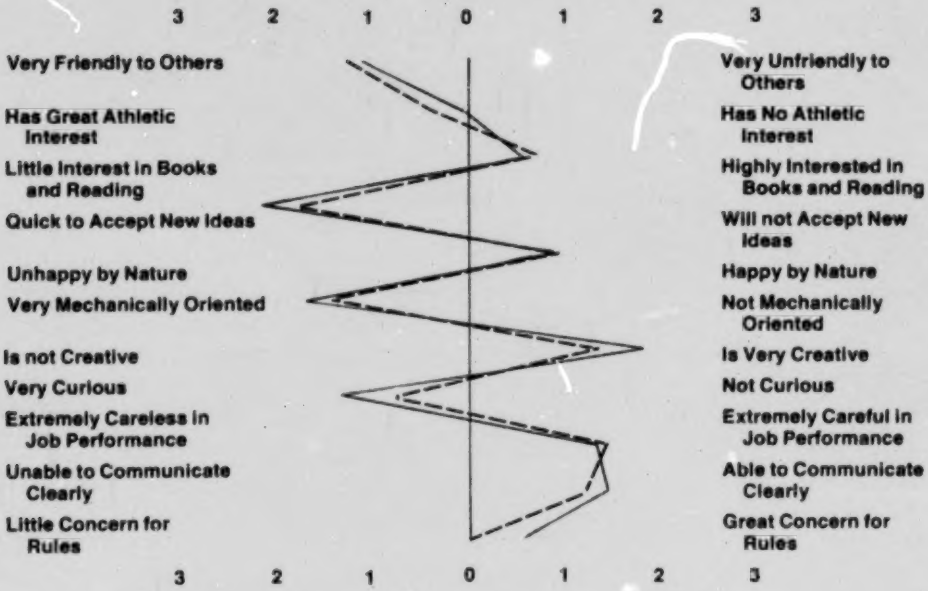
Table 1

RESPONDENT'S SEX, AGE, AND COURSE WORK IN THE OPPOSITE SCHOOL

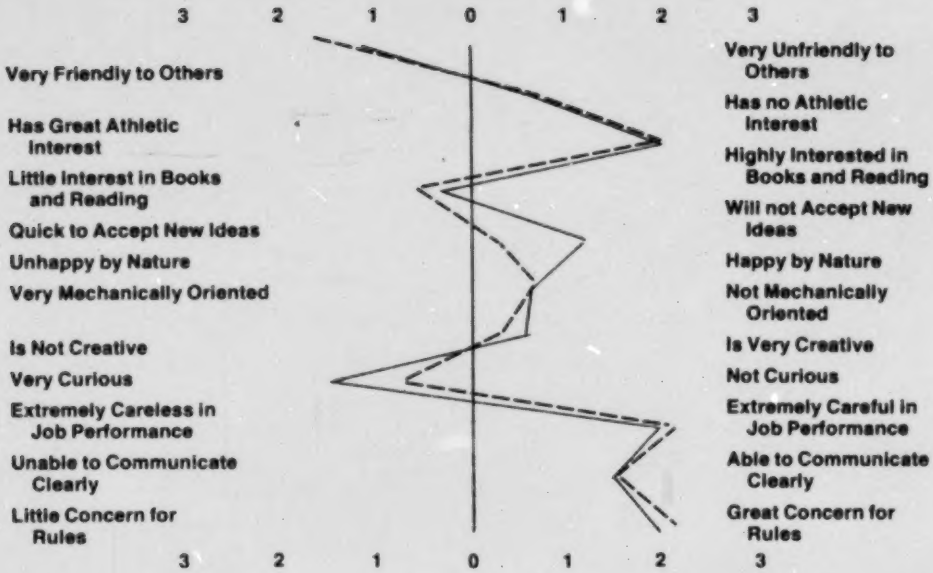
		Library School Students	Educational Communications Students
SEX	Male	3	16
	Female	23	11
AGE	20-25	4	16
	26-30	10	3
	31-40	8	6
	41-over	5	1
Course work in the opposite school		5	14

FIGURE 1
ATTITUDES TOWARD AV SPECIALISTS



Mean ratings given by
Library School Students _____
Educational Communication Students

FIGURE 2
ATTITUDES TOWARD LIBRARIANS



Mean ratings given by
Library School Students ——
Educational Communication Students

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THE USE
OF SUPPLY-DEMAND
EQUALITY IN
EVALUATING
COLLECTION ADEQUACY

How is it possible to determine the adequacy of a public library's book collection? In qualitative terms, this question has a clear and ready answer: the knowledgeable professional librarian whose familiarity with various subject areas, together with the utilization of comprehensive book reviews and use of publications such as the Public Library Catalog, usually assures representative and quality materials in practically any subject area. But how are these materials to be allocated? What will be the quantitative mix of materials between each of the areas of the collection? Unless library policy is of the "staff-always-knows-what's-best-for-the-patron" variety, it is evident that collection-building based solely upon staff subject area knowledgeability is only part of the answer. The other side of the library coin is the one with the picture of the patron on it.

Most public libraries maintain several channels of communication which the interested patron may utilize when he wishes to express his interests to the library staff. Some of these are:

1) **Patron Feedback. This usually occurs at two points: patrons request staff aid in finding a particular title or subject area, and the circulation desk where clerks and staff librarians observe the books as they are checked out and returned. Although these techniques provide positive informational input they also have serious disadvantages. For example, the number of patrons who request help may be only a small percentage of the total number served, and informational interests gleaned and reported from those who do ask depends upon such factors as the interpersonal talents of a librarian, his own interests, and his ability to clearly differentiate and recall several conversations.**
2) **Reference Work. Reference librarians in particular are required to meet informational needs, and are in a good position to directly communicate with patrons. Roughly the same limitations may be found here as discussed above, and usually the only title requests recorded are those the library does not own or may have difficulty obtaining.**
3) **Book requests, reserves, and inter-library loans. These methods provide a means for direct communication to staff. Unfortunately they are usually a small fraction of the total titles actually checked out, and cannot be used as a basis for an overall judgement of patron interests.**
4) **Patron Questionnaires. The direct questionaire is a technique that can help solve the problem of having only a small sample to work with. In addition to being used for evaluating interest areas in respect to books, it can be used for various library concerns such as physical facilities and special programs. Moreover, it may also give the patron a tangible feeling of having communicated, and of having been listened to, which may further stimulate interest in the library. The questionnaire, though, must be used with great care. The difficulty in assuring that the evaluator and respondant are talking about exactly the same thing regarding such questions as "Books you are interested in", or "Books you would like to see more of in the library", must be experienced to really be appreciated. Additionally, respondants may answer questions with myriad personal biases that can distort a questionnaire and not be detected, i.e. "Although I read mostly Harold Robbins I really should get around to learning**

differential calculus. I'll put math as an interest area." The major difficulty with the questionnaire is often the sudden *a posteriori* **realization that its results cannot be implemented because there are no clear standards available to measure the degree to which library policy must change in order to satisfy the respondants' interests.**

Although the library staff can and does find a positive utility in the above methods, these techniques suffer from two weaknesses: lack of exactness in defining and measuring demand, and, the difficulty in obtaining a benchmark measure to determine the degree to which each area of the collection is meeting patron demands. It seems evident that a technique resolving these two difficulties, and using circulation demand measured against a defined supply in order to provide a means of judging patron interest area fullfillment within the various subject areas of the collection, would provide an improved, though not complete, tool for more precise allocation of book resources.

One possible method of meeting these requirements is to view use of library resources in terms of a supply-demand equality, while using statistical sampling and testing techniques as a means of setting standards and evaluating adequacy. The mechanics of the particular techniques presented here have had wide industrial and scientific application, and can be found in most textbooks dealing with statistics. The use of statistical tools for the purpose of measuring supply-demand equality in libraries is, to the author's knowledge, new.

Basically, the total collection of books that a public library makes available to its patrons can be viewed as an array of different types, fiction or non-fiction. The non-fiction in particular being more carefully broken down into subject areas by use of the Dewey Classification System. It is this method of grouping, or classifying, that makes possible the measurement of book availability and usage.

It is not only possible to identify different classifications, but also the number of books within each classification. For example, of the total books the patron has to choose from perhaps three percent are in the subject area 330 (Economics), while one percent can be found in subject area 690 (Building Construction). This composite collection which consists of a number of books in each area, represents in effect

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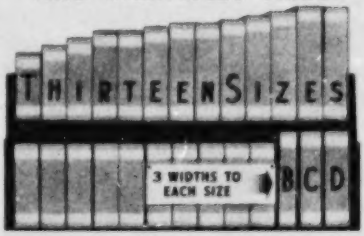

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the library staff's evaluation of the relative importance of each subject area and the consideration of the needs of all patrons taken together. If the library staff has correctly estimated the interests and needs of its patrons then supply in each area should roughly correspond to the proportionate (percentage) usage in each area. If this is **not** the case, the patrons will then be found using, in percentage terms, greater or fewer books than are being made available. This should provide a warning that there has been a misjudgement regarding patron interests, and further analysis and/or corrective action is needed. (For example, it is found that although one percent of the total supply is available in the 330 area, three percent of the demand is found there.)

What this essentially means is that the patron is, to a greater degree, deciding for himself; he is communicating his real interests by the types of books he uses when confronted with a choice. This does not mean a patron is not influenced by a number of various factors, such as a large collection in a particular area, but it does indicate when patron interests are either "over-satisfied" by too large a subject area or "under-satisfied" by an insufficient one, given the population he must choose from. Of course, if there are no volumes, or just a few volumes available in a particular area, then evaluation becomes impossible or difficult; there must be something to choose from!

What are the guidelines to be used? For subject areas where interest is significantly greater than the offering available, more resources may have to be applied to the enlargement of this area in order to satisfy patron interests. For subject areas where demand is significantly less than supply the staff professional will have to make at least a two-step analysis before submitting a recommendation:

1) If the area has been sufficiently weeded and contains up-to-date, readable books in most relevant parts of the area, then the offering is probably too extensive and further additions may be replacements for weeded materials, or for new aspects of the discipline. 2) If after analysis the librarian feels that this is not the case and that serious deficiencies exist, then that area may need to be replaced. In other words, it is possible that patrons are not fully utilizing an area because it is too antiquated. To cease or reduce purchases without prior evaluation would condemn an area to a future of uselessness. In any event, the sampling and testing technique should flash a warning signal when supply-demand equality is absent, and indicate that analysis should be undertaken.

METHODOLOGY OF MEASURING SUPPLY

In order to show the related steps to be taken in performing a sampling procedure and a test of hypotheses, some specific examples and associated underlying assumptions are presented.

The first step in the process of determining supply-demand equality is to determine the supply currently being offered the patron. This requires an estimate of the total volumes available in the collection from which the sample will be drawn. In addition, a figure must be obtained for the number of books in the particular class or division for which the supply-demand equality is being determined. For example, suppose the total adult book collection (fiction and non-fiction) is 100,000 volumes. Due to high patron interest as well as the high cost per volume, first division tested will be 650 (Business). Counting shelf-list cards it is determined there are approximately 2,450 volumes in this division, or 2.45 percent of the entire adult collection. (The shelf list, once counted

and determined to be reasonably accurate, need only be updated by future purchases, losses, or reclassifications.[1])

An additional point to keep in mind is the definition of "population", of which a particular class or division forms a part. An underlying assumption of this approach is that a book is presumed to be available to any and all patrons who might conceivably have an interest in it. This may appear to be a baldly obvious point, but it is also a crucial one, and has an important influence upon the determination of relative supply and demand equality. The statistical significance of any demonstrated difference between supply and demand for any given area of the collection is in part a function of the size of the total population of which that area is just one part. For example, should the 650 division be tested as part of the non-fiction collection only, to the exclusion of the fiction area? Should the 650 division be determined as a percentage of the **entire** collection, including the juvenile collection? These questions necessitate an assumption regarding patron reading habits. In the first case it probably should be assumed that the 650 division competes not with just other non-fiction, but with all adult books in determining the total real choice available to adult patrons. On the other hand, it can probably be safely assumed that juvenile books do not constitute part of this choice, and do not compete with the 650 division in resource allocation intended for adult readers.

METHODOLOGY OF MEASURING DEMAND

The second step in determining supply-demand equality is to obtain a sample proportion of the books in the 650 division actually being read by the patrons. This can probably be done in several ways, but logistically it may be most practicable to tally the book as it is checked out. Since book usage in some areas may be seasonal, it would be most reliable if samples were taken periodically during different seasons of the year, perhaps monthly, to obtain an annual demand figure, which could in turn be compared to the weighted average of book supply maintained in a simple schedule. The sampling itself should be done over a period that is short enough to eliminate any possibility of the same book being checked out, read, returned, and checked out again. This will eliminate any effect, although remote, due to the circulation profile in term of book reading time of any given area being significantly longer or shorter than any other. Renewed books should be counted as checked out if they fall within the sampling period, and sampling should not be performed more often

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than the longest borrowing period before required renewal — usually two weeks in most libraries. In general, the larger the sample size, the freer are the results from sampling error. However, since we are only sampling, and not counting all the books being read, there will always be some sampling error present, although this can be specified and minimized.

DETERMINING SUPPLY-DEMAND EQUALITY

The decision rule of the technique presented is really dependent upon formulating a judgement as to when the sample proportion of books being read in a given category varies "too far" from the proportion of being made available in that category. When this happens the decision is that the degree of availability does not coincide with patron interests. The sample proportion is determined as having varied "too far" when the probability of sample results actually obtained from a sampling distribution of the characteristic under study (in this case, the percentage of books in the 650 division) is so small that it must be concluded it must have come from a different distribution, having a different proportion of the parameter being tested, which indicates that the sample proportion is significantly different from that being offered in the collection. In other words, the proportion of books being read has varied "too far" for the librarian's estimate of overall patron interest to be considered correct, as judged by the proportion of books being supplied by that area. Only a small percentage of the time will this be incorrectly decided when it is not actually the case, (type I error), and this possibility can be limited to any level (10 percent of the time, 5 percent, 2 percent, and so forth). This error must be counterbalanced against the possibility that the test is not sensitive enough (type II error) to indicate when a change has actually occurred. The probability of these types of errors (as one increases, the other decreases) can be set in advance, as seen below, for a given sample size. Increasing the sample size reduces both errors. In consideration of these factors, the sample size can be determined by the following formula:

$$n = \left[\frac{(Z \text{ type I})\sqrt{P_0\,(1-P_0)} + (Z \text{ type II})\sqrt{P_1\,(1-P_1)}}{P_1 - P_0} \right]^2$$

Where: Z (type I) and Z (type II) are the standard Z units associated with specified Type I and Type II error levels. (From standard tables.) P is the proportion associated with the null hypothesis (2.45_2 is the number of 650 books being read out of all adult books being read.) P is the proportion associated with the allowable Type II error. n is the required sample size.

In view of the considerations noted, a useful approach with this method is to make the probability of a Type I error (incorrectly saying that usage is significantly different when it isn't) around 2 percent, and letting the Type II error (the test not being sensitive enough to detect some shifts when they really occur) be rather large for small to medium-sized shifts. This "conservative" approach then, will allow us to be quite sure (98 percent in this case) of a genuine shift when one is indicated, and will not recommend a possible policy change when it isn't required.

Suppose the decision is made to take samples during the third week of every month (unless this can be shown to bias the results in some way). Also, being conservative, the decision is to accept only a 2 percent chance of a Type I error, but a 10 percent chance of a Type II error as far up as 3 percent indicated use, or about a 23 percent change from the null hypothesis of 2.45 percent. Using the formula:

$$n = \left[\frac{(2.06)\sqrt{(.0245)(.9755)} + (1.28)\sqrt{(.03)(.97)}}{(.0300) - (.0245)} \right]^2 =$$

$$= \left[(.3189) + (.2189)/.0055 \right]^2 = 9.545$$

In this case, the required sample size to be taken during a year's time is 9,545 books, or about 790 books per month, each of which will be tallied as either a 650 division or not a 650 division book.

As already noted, the levels at which the risks are set have determined the sample size, and it may decrease or increase as the risk levels are changed[2] according to the evaluator's judgement. The reader can verify that if he is willing to accept a 10 percent risk of a Type II error as far up as a shift to 4 percent instead of 3 percent, the total annual sample size becomes 1062 instead of 9,545.[3]

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Having resolved this problem, it is decided to go ahead and sample monthly. After a number of months of sampling, it is discovered that usage of the 650 division among patrons is 3.44 percent of the adult books checked out. Is this a statistically significant shift? Has demand significantly increased over supply? The formula for the actual (one-tailed) test of a hypothesis is:

$$\overline{P} = P + Z \text{ Type I } \sqrt{\frac{(P)(1-P)}{n}}$$

Where: $\overline{p}$ is the decision value; that is, the highest allowable proportion, above which a significant shift is deemed to have taken place.

$$\text{So, } \overline{p} = .0245 + \sqrt{\frac{(2.06)(.0245)(.9745)}{9{,}545}}$$

$$= .0245 + (2.06)(.0015)$$
$$= .0274$$

The decision value, then, is 2.74 percent, and is less than the indicated usage. A significant shift is deemed to have occurred, and this should signal a change in the adult book purchasing policy, with more books being added to the 650 division in order to bring supply up within tolerable limits of indicated demand.[4]

Of course, the test may be performed for two or three divisions together, or even a class, but less precise data regarding resource allocation is gained, since an entire class consists of a number of heterogeneous areas, some of which may actually be over-supplied while others are under-supplied. One situation in which it might be feasible to perform the test for an entire class would be for one that has a small number of items in each division, and as such, does not constitute a large part of the collection.

Example 2: Sampling indicates that usage of the 520 division (Astronomy) is .70 percent of adult book usage. Supply is .88 percent of the collection. Is supply excessive? Suppose we

specify only a 2 percent Type I error, and use the same sample size of 9,545.

$$\bar{p} = .0088 - (2.06)\sqrt{\frac{(.0088)(.9912)}{9{,}545}}$$
$$= .0088 - (2.06)(.000956)$$
$$= .0068$$

Since the decision value of .68 percent is still less than indicated usage of .70 percent, the supply is not excessive.

Finally, the actual results of a sampling conducted at a medium-sized suburban library might be of interest. Part of those results, shown with the corresponding classification are as follows:

	Usage Sample		Supply	
Dewey Classification	Number	% of total	Number	% of total
700	8	.33	520	.59
710	3	.13	175	.20
720	6	.25	431	.49
730	8	.33	376	.43
740	81	3.36	1319	1.50
750	15	.62	605	.69
760	8	.33	156	.18
770	8	.33	288	.33
780	15	.62	1259	1.43
790	109	4.53	2633	2.99
Total	261	10.84	7762	8.82

It can be noted that several areas appear under-supplied, particularly the 740, 760, and 790 divisions, while the 720, and particularly the 780 division, appear over-supplied. Results were roughly similar for other areas.

FOOTNOTES

[1] Since the number of books available is constantly changing, and the test of hypothesis for the binomial distribution assumes a constant percentage P for all the samples, the approach here is to maintain a weighted average number of books (in book-days or book-months) in each class, and for the total number of books available, over a year's time. This can be easily accomplished at year-end by setting up ahead of time a simple schedule of purchases and discarding. The weighted averages for a year are used to determine(P_0, against which a year's results of sampling is compared.

[2] If the samples indicate an equivalent change which is less than the null hypothesis, instead of more, the required sample size of 9545 may be more than is needed.

[3] The evaluator should always check to see that $(n)(P_0) > 5$ and that $(n)(1-P_0) > 5$

[4] What is being measured is *relative usage* between the various areas within the collection as measured by circulation. "Utility" in terms of how much a reader "gets out" of the book being used, and whether he sometimes does it in the library without borrowing the book, are unmeasurable factors equally applicable to all areas and therefore not disruptive to the assumptions of this test.

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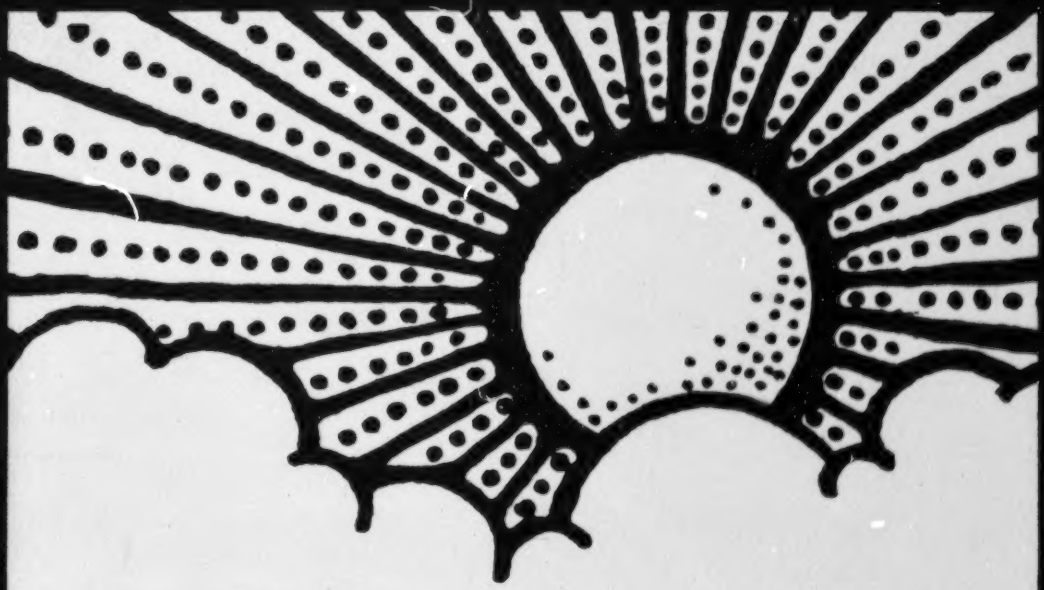

ON-SITE SURVEYS, AN EXPERIMENT IN RESOURCEFULNESS

Consortia, networks, data banks, inter-type cooperation. This is the climate of library thinking across the land today. Federal funding for the past five years has made possible a whole new body of experiments and innovations in this direction. If SCAN is still an unfamiliar acronym, it is best to begin with a brief description of how SCAN works.

SCAN stands for Southern California Answering Network. As the name implies, it is a communication and information network funded with Federal Library Services and Construction Act money and administered by the California State Library. It is headquartered in the Los Angeles Public Library. SCAN has a Northern California counterpart called BARC, the Bay Area Reference Center. BARC operates out of the San Francisco Public Library. Together, SCAN and BARC act as officially designated Regional Resource Centers for the State of California. When a reference question cannot be answered by a member library at the local level, it can be forwarded to a system area library for further searching. If a system library cannot supply the answer, the question is sent to SCAN or to BARC by teletype.

When the question reaches SCAN, it is given to one of six subject specialist librarians on the staff. Using the resources of the Los Angeles Public Library, they seek answers to these difficult or "third level" reference questions. However, they are not limited to those resources alone. Whenever necessary, they are free to contact any agency of any kind in the United States, or for that matter, abroad, in search of answers.

In December 1972, SCAN received sufficient funds to try another innovation. Because the staff frequently contacted libraries of all types looking for answers, they knew that there were literally hundreds of libraries in Southern California with unique and important resources. The question was how SCAN could learn, in depth, what they contained. The subject specialists had used directories to special library collections. But what about libraries not listed? What about libraries listed whose collections were so vast, or so special that they could not be adequately described in the typical director format? I was selected to bridge this gap.

Together, Evelyn Greenwald, director of SCAN, and I set about to describe this previously undescribed position I had just taken. In part, the job description read as follows:

> "The Resource Specialist travels to libraries both in the Greater Los Angeles Metropolitan Area and beyond, to include all of Southern California. An attempt is being made to determine those bibliographic holdings or data files which are comprehensive or unique . . . The kinds of libraries to be visited are intentionally diverse. They include systems headquarters libraries, special libraries, college and university libraries of significant size, government libraries, as well as institutional, commercial, and private libraries. This is being done to discover new and varied sources of information which SCAN subject specialists may use to answer difficult questions in subject areas. Files will be assembled so that this information can ultimately be shared with the whole library community."

Next, we compiled a list of libraries that we knew or suspected had the greatest areas of interest to the subject specialists. The Science and Technology specialist wanted to know more about the collection of the Los Angeles County Arboreta and Botanical Gardens Plant Science Library. Almost everyone wanted to know more about

the resources of the Los Angeles County Museum of Natural History as we relied on their expertise so often. Both the Humanities and the Art and Music subject specialists wanted an insider's view of the motion picture studios research libraries. They knew there were huge collections of pictures and clippings, but not their arrangement. Also, did the various studios specialize in certain areas? The list was a long one.

On that basis, I started a preliminary card file in which I noted the library name, address, telephone number, hours, person in charge, and the subject areas of the collection of major interest to SCAN. I also made a habit of writing down any questions I wanted to ask when I made the first telephone contact. If a library had historical scrapbooks I wanted to ask if they were indexed, and how far back they went. If a library had helped a subject specialist by providing good statistical information, I wanted to find out what kind of files they maintained.

After collecting all the suggestions offered by the SCAN staff, I went to the directory sources. The three most useful were; Lee Ash and Denis Lorenz, *Subject Collections*. 3rd ed., Bowker, 1967, *The Director Of Special Libraries In Southern California*. 1973 3d., published by the Southern California Chapter of the Special Library Association, and *News Notes Of California Libraries*, vol. 68, no. 1 (Winter, 1973). I focused on any Southern California library that appeared to work with other libraries, or with the public in any way. The library media was also used to send out an appeal to all libraries asking for leads.

This last method yielded some useful information about little known collections; at least little known to our staff. There is a library in Southern California that has a collection of beverage literature that may be second only to the Library of Congress. It contains ancient formularies and cookbooks, histories of wines, spirits, and other beverages, and technical information on flavorings, to name a few of its interesting subject areas. We learned by word of mouth that one of the Northrop Corporation's libraries had an aviation history collection. When the Science subject specialist and I went to visit we found a special collection of rare photographs, clippings, aviation periodicals and journals, as well as a fine book collection. The heart of the collection is in the scrapbooks. There are about one hundred and thirty-five at the present time filled with clippings and photos covering every aspect of the history of

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aviation. All are well indexed and classified. I was told that it was far from complete; when all materials are assembled, the number of scrapbooks should reach about six hundred! This rich and remarkable collection is, for the most part, the work of a lifetime on the part of one man — Professor David Hatfield.

It was another response to our library media appeal that led to visits of governmental type archives in the Los Angeles area. With the help of the Social Science, History, and Business and Economics subject specialists, I visited the regional Federal Archive and Records Center in Bell, California, the Los Angeles County Records Archive, and the Los Angeles City Archive. Archives of this kind can be a whole new world to those with public library backgrounds. In the first place, the traditional concept of a library with books and shelves and a card catalog must be set aside. For here are huge warehouses and storerooms filled from floor to ceiling with special one cubic foot square boxes with numbers on them. Thousands of boxes, row upon row. Access to their contents is not a matter of looking through a card file: the information is found in lists. There are preliminary inventories, packing lists, and shelf lists to be consulted in order to determine where the proper box is located, and if the box contains the desired material. Learning how to use archives at their source was a fascinating and enlightening experience; we have made new contacts and have found a wealth of new material we are now able to tap in an effective way.

My next exercise was to design data sheets to collect the information we would be seeking, with particular attention to those areas which would be most valuable to SCAN. The format of these sheets is still evolving. However, data such as detailed descriptions of card files, scrapbooks, special subscription services, collection availability, unique indexes, and subject area authorities are given considerable emphasis. I also devised a format for subject-headed resource cards. Important subject areas in the libraries visited are entered on these cards. The location and telephone number, the format of the collection, and whether there is a detailed report in our files is indicated. Included are brief qualitative remarks indicating whether the collection is extremely complete, or just fair, and noting the rich areas when they can be discerned. Occasionally, a note might read, "They may not have what you are looking for, but go ahead and try them. If you weren't desperate, you wouldn't be using this file." Other things go into the resource file too. Whenever a subject specialist discoveres a new "expert", or any new source of information this data also goes into the resource file. It is gradually becoming an important reference too.

Once there was a list of libraries to visit, and the beginnings of a methodology for collecting information, it was time to go out into the wonderful world of libraries. I somewhat apprehensively began making calls, and to my surprise and relief discovered almost every librarian contacted was delighted to know that someone out there wanted to visit their library and see their collections.

The diversity, size, and scope encountered in examining the collections of so many types of libraries can at times be bewildering. At SCAN the secret weapon of the resource specialist is the subject specialist librarian. When I find I am "over my head" in a subject area I take a subject specialist with me. The areas these six librarians cover roughly correspond to the departments in our Central Library. They are Art and Music, Business and Economics, History, Humanities, Science and Technology, and Social Sciences. These li-

brarians are an invaluable asset. When we visit a library together, they can say with considerable assurance, "Oh, we have that", or "This is great! Only one other library on the West Coast has it." Working together we are able to obtain a far more accurate picture of certain special and technical collections than a generalist (that's me) could do working alone.

We hope, before the end of this experiment, to write about our findings in individual libraries in greater detail. There are many libraries we would like to describe for a wider audience. One problem we have discovered whenever the work "publish" comes up, is the rightful reluctance of some libraries to make their collections widely known. Why? Because they have such limited facilities and staff that they could not handle the demand that widespread publicity would bring. It can also be said that most of the libraries visited, no matter what type, are struggling to perform herculean feats while at the same time trying to cope with overcrowded shelves, growing demands for service, and inadequate staff to meet these demands. If this falls into the "suspicions confirmed" department, it is because it is such a pervasive problem.

I have visited motion picture studios, warehouses, factories, posh private libraries, and plain old fashioned library-type libraries. Well over a thousand miles have been logged visiting libraries, giving talks, and attending meetings. In pursuit of these things, a few techniques have been developed that might prove helpful to anyone planning a similar project. These things have been learned through a combination of serendipity, trial, and error. Plenty of error! For whatever they are worth, here are a few discoveries I have made.

Not every library contact leads to a visit. After a telephone conversation with the librarian in charge of a collection, it is not difficult to tell if a visit would be productive. Pick a few general questions based on knowledge of your own collection. You may find that they do not have much beyond the resources to which you already have access, despite a glowing description in a directory. Again, a simple telephone call can turn up a gem of information. That is how we discovered that *TV Guide Magazine* has a card file index by personalities and subjects going back to the first issue of the magazine in 1956.

Sometimes you may call a particular library at a time when great changes are taking place. "Oh lord, don't come now! Everything is in boxes." On the other hand, some libraries may be automatic visits. "I'd love to have you come. No one seems to know what we have, and there's so much." Eureka!

Always make an appointment at the total convenience of the librarians you wish to visit. Let them tell you when to come. If you try to fit them into your schedule, you may find they are really too busy to give you the time you need. Occasionally, there are collections that require several visits. The first visit may be to obtain an overview, and subsequent visits are needed to carefully record all details. With surveys of this kind, after the initial explanation by the librarian, you can usually work on your own and the librarian can get back to the work at hand. One thing is certain: no two library visits are ever alike.

When you make an appointment, always ask for specific directions to the library. Libraries can be tucked away in the darndest places. There are times when even this does not prevent you from getting lost. I have learned to allow for a little "getting lost" time. What may have been perfectly clear to the direction-giver has not always been clear to me. It is also a good idea to call back either the day before or the day of your appointment and confirm it. That way you can be sure you are expected.

Once the mission is accomplished and you get back to headquarters, it is time to do a detailed report of your findings. No matter how good your notes may be, there are usually fine points and nuances that fade from memory if a number of days intervene before committing your finds to paper. While you are still at your desk, why not drop a line to the librarian you have just visited? Librarians love thank-you letters. Not only are they a courtesy to the people who took valuable time to talk to you, but you are providing tangible evidence of your visit that can have serveral other uses. It can be used by the librarian to show the importance of the collection to other libraries; it can be used in library newsletters and annual reports; it can be used to keep track of the libraries visited if you do not keep a travel log.

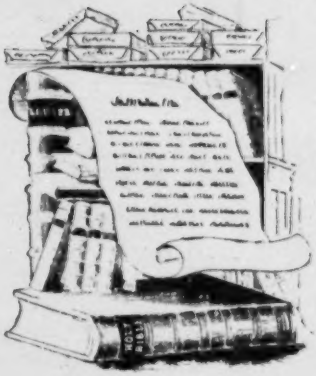
After fifteen months it is not possible to fully evaluate the effectiveness of the project. It can be said that although this work is being undertaken as an experiment, with short term goals, it has implications for all libraries. In regional or geographic terms we often find that one library or library system knows very little about the available resources of other libraries and systems around them. Happily that picture is slowly changing. But it is still only too true that libraries of different types frequently do not communicate effectively. How often do technical, private, governmental, public, and university and college libraries exchange information other than printed lists and interlibrary loan forms? All too often libraries of a particular type talk only among themselves.

Directories and questionnaires, in general, are certainly not without usefulness, but there are important limitations. Entries are, of necessity, brief. Then too, not all libraries queried respond to questionnaires. When information is given it is usually in general subject terms,and the data is frequently quantitative. The questions "how much," or "how many," are valuable indicators of what a library collection contains, but when a library can be surveyed and the collection examined at firsthand, a new dimension is added. It is then possible to zero in on specific areas and obtain a more detailed description than previously available. It is then possible to ask qualitative questions such as: how good, how definitive, how old, or how rare.

This brings us to two very important considerations: accessibility and intertype cooperation between libraries. There is no doubt that our profession has entered into a new age with regard to both of these concepts. Sheer economic necessity is a vital part of the picture. However, it is also evident that as new and more sophisticated demands are being made on libraries at all levels of service, libraries are beginning to respond by finding creative new approaches and solutions to these problems. I am sure this is a partial answer to the positive enthusiasm I invariably discover when I ask even the most understaffed librarians if SCAN could call on them occasionally to check a file or pick brains. It must be stressed that I am not speaking about interlibrary loan function in terms of this experiment. When SCAN goes outside the Los Angeles Public Library, it is done to find the answers to specific reference questions. Many libraries I visit are not set up to work directly with the public. Yet librarian-to-librarian contacts are almost universally welcomed.

This kind of personal contact, using a resource specialist to make on-site surveys was not possible before, at least in this part of the country, because no public library had the available staff or the time. SCAN recently received the good news that funds will continue through June 1975 and will be able to look forward to at least one more year of service. When federal funds dry up, it will probably mean the end of this particular experiment.

While SCAN lasts, and while we are able to find new sources of information utilizing on-site surveys, we know we are improving our ability to answer difficult questions in a measureable way. We are making valuable contacts with libraries of all kinds over an ever-widening area. We are learning about them, and many of these libraries are learning for the first time what our library system has to offer. No library in the world has shown itself to be complete within itself. Before this experiment ends, it is my hope to see other libraries develop and continue the concept of personal surveys. I've been out there and I know. There's gold in "them thar hills."



LIBRARIES VISITED — AN INDICATIVE LIST

This is a selective list of libraries visited since December 1972. It gives some idea of the range and variety of libraries in the Los Angeles area we have been able to effectively tap. Almost every library on this list has come through for us with needed information.

Academy of Motion Picture Arts and Sciences Library
American Film Institute. Charles K. Feldman Library
California Institute of Technology. Aeronautics Library
California State Department of Transportation. District 7 Library
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Information and Referral Service of Los Angeles County. (United Way)
Jewish Federation Council of Greater Los Angeles. Jewish Community Library
Los Angeles City Records Retention Center
Los Angeles City Schools Professional Library
Los Angeles County Arboreta and Botanical Gardens. Plant Science Library
Los Angeles County Archive
Los Angeles County Art Museum Library
Los Angeles County Museum of Natural History Library
Los Angeles Temple Genealogical Library
Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer Studios Research Library
Music Center of Los Angeles County. Music Archive
Nissan Motor Corporation Library
Philosophical Research Society, Inc. Library
Pomona Public Library, Special Collections
Republican Associates of Southern California Library
Security Pacific National Bank, Historical Collection
Sons of the Revolution and Southern California Genealogical Society Library
Southern California Library for Social Studies and Research
Southern California Society for Psychical Research Library
Universal City Studios Research Department Library
University of Judaism Library
University of Southern California. Ethel P. Andrus Gerontology Center Library

Copyright-Ev
Kings Had Pro

en Saints And
blems With It!

To every cow her calf, and accordingly to every book its copy!" — thus, as legend has it, did good King Diarmed, sitting in Tara's halls, judge in what may have been the first copyright case.[1]

It appears that in the year 567 A.D. there occurred a celebrated dispute between Scotland's famed Saint Columba and his teacher, Finnian of Moville, concerning the ownership of a copy of Finnian's *Psalter*. Saint Columba had borrowed the choir book and, by staying up all night, furtively made a copy of it. Finnian, the good abbot, protested this rather unholy act on Saint Columba's part and demanded not only the original but also the copy as his own property. The argument went before the king to decide. Saint Columba, however, refused to accept the verdict in favor of Finnian! In fact, in another rather unsaintly display of conduct, Columba raised a band of followers and fought the king but was soon defeated and exiled.

A thousand years elapsed until what appears to be the first authentic recorded case involving book piracy and copyright in England in 1533. It involved Wynkyn de Worde who sued for the protection of his right to print a small treatise on grammar by Robert Witinton.

Copyright means, in general the right to copy. In its specific application, it means the right to multiply copies of those products of the human brain known as literature and art. There is nothing which may more properly be called property than the creation of the individual brain.[2]

Even in the early days before printing there appears to have been a sense of property rights. The first recognition of literary property was in Rome under the Empire when the important manuscript publishers paid authors for the right to duplicate and sell their works. Although no imperial act or provision in Roman law protected these copyrights, trade usage forbade infringement upon a publisher's (or seller's) right in a work transferred to him. Such an arrangement may be called guild or trade copyright, and it was the first step in the development of copyright.

The second step was the institutional copyright which was established by monasteries that allowed rare or authentic manuscripts to be copied for a fee. Monks from distant monastaries came to a noted scriptorium where a valuable manuscript could be copied and paid for this right to copy by presenting other copies of manuscripts to the scriptorium. Institutional copyright was perfected in the universities of Bologna, Padua, Paris, Heidelberg, and Oxford.

However, it was not until the invention of printing that the protection of literary property became a question of rapidly increasing importance. Cheap duplication immensely enlarged the reading audience, and the author's thoughts of rewards increased rapidly, as did his new pecuniary interest in his copyright. The state or crown, as its powers grew, asserted the prerogative to control printing by issuing patents and privileges to individuals, or by organizing companies of publishers with monopoly rights. The purposes were, in part, to be able to censor heresy or sedition and, in part, to foster literature by protecting publishers against piracy.

In Venice, the Council of Ten (during 1469-1517) gave privileges for printing books, for an author's copyright, for a publisher's copyright, and for outlawing imported books. The principle of a limited term of protection — usually for fourteen years — with a right of renewal was first introduced at this time, but it was not definitely adopted until the Copyright Act of Great Britain (1709).

The earliest copyright certificate, if it may be so called, in a printed book was in the re-issue of the essay of Peter Nigrus, printed in 1475 at Esslingen, Germany. In it, the Bishop of Ratisbon, Germany, certified the correctness of the copy and indicated his approval. At first, privileges (not copyrights) were granted to printers for the reproduction of classic works or writings of the Fathers of the Church. In some cases the printers acted as representatives of living writers. There are, in fact, some early instances of direct grants of privileges to authors,[3] the earliest known being in 1486 in Venice to Sabellico.

In 1491 Venice gave to Peter of Ravenna and the publisher of his choice the sole right, without mention of term, to print and sell his "Phoenix." This is usually cited as the first instance of copyright.[3]

For the most part, however, prior to 1709, such property as there had been in the right to reproduce books had not been the author's but was in the hands of the printer and bookseller.[4] In those days the writing of books was not considered to be a profession but an avocation. It was followed by wealthy men of leisure who would consider it an insult to be paid for their efforts. Later, as more and more people turned to writing, the outlook changed, and for an author to accept payment for his manuscript or royalties on sales of its copies was no longer considered undignified. Authors quickly earned public sentiment and support. Soon they took their place among the publishers as members of another profession. They prospered and became class conscious and set up the idea of personal versus institutional literature. Authors then claimed that their works were private property, produced by arduous labor, in which they enjoyed perpetual rights. They pointed out that in Venice as early as 1545 the printer had to present to the university commissioners of Padua the documentary proof of an author's consent to publication.

The fact that in England royal grants were made which favored printers further antagonized the authors. In 1556 the Star Chamber, under Queen Mary, incorporated 97 printers, booksellers, and stationers in the Stationers' Company. Presses and books were licensed and other persons forbidden to print any books at all. Registration with the Company established copyright *prima facie*. Other legal action was unnecessary since the company had powers to punish illegal publishing, first as piracy and second as unlicensed printing. It was not until 1643 that a licensing act was added which prohibited the printing of any work without the author's sanction.

Thereafter, the lapse of the licensing system and the confusion between the idea of a state and property at common law resulted in such chaos with widespread piracy that both authors and printers demanded new formal protection, a statute against piracy, and recognition of registration at Stationers' Hall.

As a result, in 1709, England introduced the first copyright law the world had known — The Statute of Anne. It was "an act for the encouragement of learning by vesting of the copies of printed books in the authors or purchasers of such copies during the times therein mentioned."[5] The Statute, said to have been drawn up in its original form by Swift, gave the author of works then existing, or his assignees, the sole right of printing for twenty-one years from date and no longer. Authors of works not then printed were given sole printing rights for fourteen years and no longer, except in the case in which were an author alive at the expiration of that term he could have the privilege prolonged for another fourteen years. Penalties were provided which could not be exacted

unless the books were registered with the Stationers' Company, and which had to be sued for within three months after the offense. If too high prices were charged, the Queen's officers might order them lowered. A book could not be imported without the written consent of the owner of the printing right.[3]

The main beneficiaries of the Statute were the authors. For the first time their work was officially recognized as a valuable commodity for which they could claim the protection of the law. Their writings were now considered property which they could sell in the open market to their best advantage.

However, the actual petition for the Copyright Act came from the publishers. They, in fact, profited hardly less than the authors by the security which the law now accorded to the buyer as well as to the seller of intellectual produce. The ensuing disappearance of pirating printers permitted the publisher to fix the prices of his wares at a level which at the same time ensured him of a reasonable profit and permitted him to let his author share in it.[5]

The rest of Europe was about a hundred years behind England in recognizing the author's individual interest in his productions. Italy recognized the change about 1780 and France at the time of the revolution. Before this time copyright in those countries was based on guild control of publishers, royal patents, trade agreements, and municipal regulations.

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Following the American Revolution, most of the states enacted copyright laws patterned after the Statute of Anne. The first federal copyright statute was enacted in 1790. It covered maps, charts, and books, and gave copyright protection to authors and proprietors upon compliance with certain formalities. A term of fourteen years was provided with the privilege of renewal for a second term of fourteen years.

Since 1800, the basic principles of the Statute of Ann have been perfected and codified; protection has been extended to dramatic, musical, and art forms; the term of the right has been lengthened; and the new mechanical methods of reproduction (phonograph records, movies, radio scripts, tape recordings, and television programs) have been covered.

The copyright laws of nearly all civilized countries demand that a copy of every book published in the country must be preserved in the State or National Library. This is termed legal deposit.

The system began in France in the sixteenth century. The French King, Francis I, was a great bibliophile. So strong was his passion for books and so anxious was he to possess as many of them as possible that he conceived the idea of enriching his library at the expense of the printers and booksellers. By the Montpellier Ordinance of December 28, 1537, all French printers and booksellers, without exception, were to forward to the Library of the Royal Chateau at Blois, a copy of every book printed and published by them. It was understood that the books were to serve as a permanent and tangible record of the literary output of the nation. The penalty for not sending any book was the confiscation of the whole edition and an arbitrary fine. Upon the subsequent transference of the Library to Paris, each successive king of France took keen pride in watching the French National Library grow by means of the compulsory additions made to it by the French printer and publisher.[5]

In 1610, Sir Thomas Bodley, anxious to increase the size and usefulness of the Library he had founded at Oxford University, persuaded the Stationers' Company in London to agree to supply the Library with an unbound copy of every book printed by their members. The cost of collecting, delivering, and binding the copies was to be borne by the University.[6]

The climax of social wisdom in respect to copyright was the formation of the International Copyright Union, based on the Bern Convention signed in 1886 and revised in Brussels in 1948. The Union (formal name, International Union for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works) recognized the international character of letters and art and of the just claims of the individual creator.

The United States, unfortunately, does not belong to the Union. This country protects the works of its authors in other countries, or foreign authors here, by reciprocal treaties. Until the Chase Act, passed in 1891, American citizens only were granted copyright in the United States — a condition which caused great friction because works of foreign origin were reproduced at will without payment. This was especially true of English authors, since the common language made them profitable, although reputable American publishers did share with the authors the profits from American editions. The Chase Act extended copyright protection to foreign authors, but at the same time introduced the "manufacturing clause," insisting upon the manufacture of their publications in the United States and the inclusion of a notice of United States copyright.[7]

In September 1952, forty countries, including the United States, convened in Geneva and signed the Universal

Copyright Convention which protects works but unlike the Bern Convention, does not provide protection for authors.

The present United States copyright law, Title 17 of the U.S. Code, passed in 1909 but amended many times since, grants copyright to foreign authors when domiciled here, when their country grants reciprocal protection equal to that of this act or when the country is a member of an international agreement for reciprocity.

Current interest of librarians in copyright is focused on the publishing company of Williams & Wilkins and their suit against the United States government for copyright infringement through the photocopying of journal articles by the National Library of Medicine and the National Institutes of Health Library. In an opinion handed down in February 1972 by Court of Claims Commissioner James F. Davis, it was recommended, as the conclusion of law in the case, that Williams & Wilkins is entitled to recover reasonable and entire compensation for infringement of copyright.

The decision of the U.S. Court of Claims on November 27, 1973 in reviewing the Davis decision took the other position and held the U.S. "free of liability in the particular situation presented by this record." Williams & Wilkins has announced that the decision will be appealed to the U.S. Supreme Court.[8]

For an in-depth analysis of the problems of copyright from a librarian's point of view Clapp's [9] detailed and scholarly article, although now somewhat dated, is still worth reading, and highly recommended.

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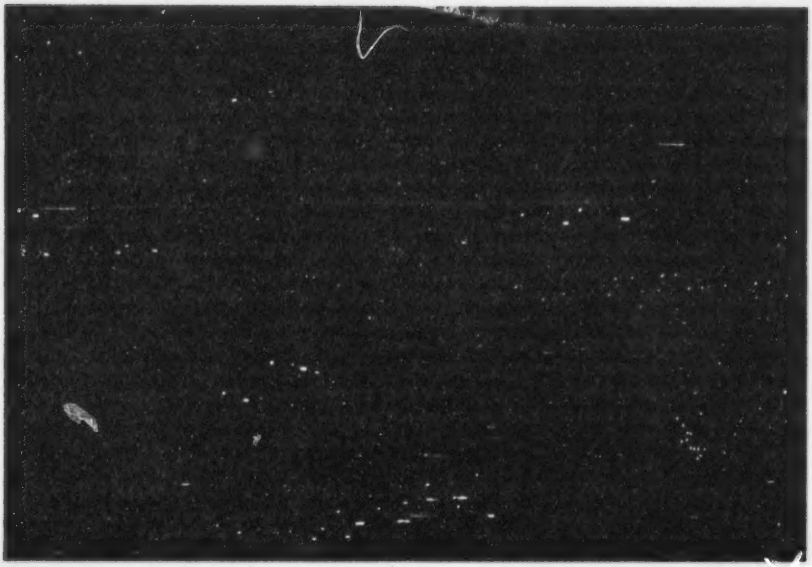
DISESTABLISHING THE SCHOOL AND THE PUBLIC LIBRARY:



Ivan Illich's severe criticism of the schools applies in some respects to American public libraries. What should be of even greater interest to librarians, however, are a number of his solutions, educational models more appropriate to libraries than to schools. These models, developed in impoverished areas of Latin America, tend to be very inexpensive to apply, yet are designed to reach, teach, and please most people. As federal money is withdrawn from libraries, and as librarians attempt to provide more service to more people with less money to gain more local tax support, the ideas of Ivan Illich take on a special value.

Scholastic machinery is as estranged from social life as if this and all its problems were outside its compass. The world of education is like an island where people, cut off from the world, are prepared for life by exclusion from it.

Maria Montessori,
The Absorbent Mind

Maria Montessori's observation is certainly not a new one. Twenty-five hundred years ago Socrates noted the same failure, and died trying to correct it. Five hundred years ago Roger Ascham in his *Scholemaster* lamented the thorough failure of the schools to cope with reality. One hundred years ago Charles Dickens pointed out that English schools were ruining youth by assumptions unfounded in reality. In this century, in addition to Maria Montessori, Jean Piaget, John Dewey, Charles Silberman, Jerome Brunner, Jonathan Kozol, and a host of others have attacked the very foundations of educa-

THE IDEAS OF IVAN ILLICH APPLIED TO LIBRARIES

tional philosophy. In fact, so many good and intelligent people have attacked the repeated blunders of the schools for the past several thousand years that in even the lightest reading of a handful of their works one can almost be led to despair or reform amongst school masters and school mistresses.

It has hardly been surprising to see the schools falter in the past decade. While the old burden of two and a half millenia of pedagogical abuses was still bearable, new burdens proved to be the proverbial "straw". With exposure after exposure of secret service to the military-industrial complex, many of the nation's most reputable universities began to lose friends on all sides.[1] In disgust students took to burning down the colleges, or blowing them up. In embarrassment, government and industry took their bags of gold and went home. Then with the report of a special presidential commission we learned what most children know too well, that primary and secondary school is no less than a dreary experience for them. And with the publication of Christopher Jenkes' now famous study we heard what three generations of American poor had discovered long ago, that education is not a significant factor in a youngster's way of life. And that is because Maria Montessori was correct, because education has been divided from life.

To assure some attainment of these purposes, and guarantee real education, society would have to provide four "channels" or learning exchanges, each of which would contain one of the four resources needed for real learning: things, models, peers, and elders.[8]

Things: the first type of learning exchange would be a reference service to educational things or objects. In contact with objects, which the schools presently shutout, the student could learn their real nature and his own, and his relation to them. Technology could be used to simplify rather than complicate objects, could also be used to build instruments to aid in the investigation of objects, and ultimately could be used to build "networks" or links in and among the four channels.

Models: the second type of exchange would be a reference service for the swapping of skills between those who possessed them and those who did not, without any regard for certification.

Peers: the third type would be a reference service for the matching of peers so that a student could engage with his fellows in a learning project.

Elders: the fourth and last type would be a reference service for educators at large, one sub-class would create and operate the four channels; a second sub-class would guide all age groups in using the channels; and a third sub-class would undertake difficult exploratory intellectual journeys (i.e., research). This liberation of access to things, skill-models, and skills, peers and elders will mean the disestablishment of the schools, the end of their infallible authority over educative processes.

This, the problem of the schools as Illich sees it, and his solution to the problem, is the heart of his theory, his social philosophy in a nutshell. It is necessary to admit that there are real problems in the schools and, that Illich's deschooling of culture may be part of the answer, if not the answer. There is much historical, social, economic and psychological evidence for the essence of his observations. "Schooling" has been oversold in many respects, and one only has to look at the machine of American graduate education, turning out tens of thousands of Ph.D.'s unemployable in their fields, to see that many have bought an empty poke. Something is very wrong in the schools when one can secure its ultimate product and can use that product very little for one's self and not at all for one's society.

Well, the librarian may ask, what implications does all of this have for my public library? I have been in charge of neither the schools nor the overall society. What are my sins? Surely not those Illich imputes to the school. I have not encouraged learning by stages, I have not attempted a monopoly on learning, and I have not forced learning, for library use is not compulsory under the law. Rather I have gone in many cases as far as my society will allow in promoting Illich's aims. I have acted as a reference service to put people in contact with those objects called books, and through books I have referred library readers to skill models and peers and elders. I have certainly maintained an exchange between this latter class, elders or educators, and my readers. Also I have catered especially to self-motivated learners and to seekers after information practical to life. Where have I sinned?"

No one would dispute the fact that most public librarians have done a great deal of what Illich recommends. But perhaps part of the public library problem is that librarians feel that they have done enough, that there is not much more they could do. Yet it seems to me they could do more. They could more actively fight for Illich's first goal of "real" education: i.e., providing all who want to learn with all reasonable available resources at any time in their lives. Public librarians do not by any means serve all of the population, but only about ten percent of it on a regular basis. Regular users among the young are largely students, and among the adults they are largely professionals.[9] Service to these groups makes the public library the close ally of both the school system and the capitalist-industrial society that Illich attacks. Service to these small groups, (first cited in Berelson's *The Library's Public* in 1949 and most recently asserted in the February 15, 1974 issue of *Library Journal* by Joseph Sakey.) makes the library a rather definite ally of the "Establishment."

The first force is the Third World which can not use "schooling." "Given their limitations in resources," observes Peter Schrag, "Latin American schools can never take the majority of children through more than the fifth grade (nor will there ever be room for that majority in the affluent middle class)."[5] The second force catalyzing the separation of schools, brand of education are the poor students of the world, the experts who have had all of the "schooling" and know first-hand exactly how badly it has failed. And the third force fighting the schools brand of education are the poor of the United States, fifteen percent of the population which earns less than $3,000 a year, who know they can

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never employ the few techniques of democracy or free enterprise which they might have been taught by "schooling." And they haven't been taught anything else, such as courses on birth control, the draft, the law and their civil rights, and the economics of daily living.

It just costs too much for the schools to teach much to many. And the poor are the first to be hurt in a budget crisis, even when they are given as much as everyone else. For their needs are more severe. The greater needs of the poor and not racial conflicts are the real nitty gritty of the school busing problem. Were thorough busing done on a wide scale, *every* school would feel the want of money to cope with those severe needs. Without the money every school, and not just the few, would become dismally ineffective in teaching a fair part of its students, and would begin to demand more money to do its job. And American taxpayers, now spending eight percent of the gross national product for schools, would balk at the demand. They're balking right now at current costs, so it is impossible to imagine that they might want to provide for all a better type of schooling, the kind of schooling now available to the most favored twenty percent of American students. That kind, including a mediocre college education, could cost 250 to 300 billion dollars a year or 1/4 to nearly 1/3 of the annual gross national product. This is just too much for "schooling". And even the United States, the richest country in the world, cannot afford it. It cannot afford to educate all children, let alone adults in need, as it educates the top 20 percent, if it uses schools to do the job. Schooling is simply not an efficient way to get education to the people. The impossible problem of the cost of schooling everyone commands Americans, rich as they are, to examine alternatives and find other avenues to education than the schools alone. Even the United States, with 210 million people six percent of the world's population, with the power to annually gobble up 50 percent of the world's resources, even the United States does not have the intellectual, the human, the monetary, and material resources to give every one of its citizens a college education.[6] The poor and the education they receive are a constant reminder of that failure.

The schools may be crumbling, but genuine learning is coming. Illich is quite convinced of this. He feels that a decent society would guarantee *real* education by supporting an educational system with three purposes:

1. To provide all who want to learn with all of the available resources at any time in their lives;
2. To put those who want to share what they know in contact with those who want to learn;
3. And, to furnish all those who wish to present an issue to the public with an opportunity to do so.[7]

What can be done? The state of schools in general today is so pitiful intellectually, pedagogically, administratively, economically, that drastic solutions and drastic actions are necessary. And it is to be expected that Ivan Illich, often the proponent of a drastic solution, would have one to offer for the problems of the schools.

In his recent book, *Deschooling Society*, Illich advocates, even predicts, the *disestablishment* of the schools in the near future.[2] This volume of essays, a synthesis of discussions at Illich's Center for Intercultural Documentation at Cuernavaca, of many articles he has previously written and of his experiences in Latin America and Europe and New York, is of vital concern to all librarians. Not only is it a pointed attack on the schools with which librarians have long been allied, but it is an indictment of the society of which the schools are a product, the whole white middle-class industrial culture with its social structures that separate men from each

other and from themselves. It is a plea for *open* educational institutions, ones *anyone* can use, almost *anytime*, such as libraries. It is an outcry against western institutions that have blocked communication between men, and so it is of consequence to librarians who are especially responsible for one agency of communication. Most importantly, it is a mine of ideas for all learning institutions, models for reaching out to all people at the most minimum cost. Such ideas should not be ignored by libraries in their attempt to gain more local support by providing more service despite minimal budgets.

In a *Saturday Review* article "The Alternative to Schooling," in which Illich condensed his book, he states his indictment of the schools thusly:

1. The schools force "all children to climb an openended education ladder" which must "favor the individual who starts out earlier, healthier, or better prepared;"
2. The enforced education deadens "for most people the will for independent learning;"
3. The schools package knowledge as a scarce and private commodity;
4. Most insidiously of all, however, the schools by the very structure of their assumptions, a hidden structure, promulgate a course of instruction or "hidden curriculum."[3] In other words, the medium of schooling is itself a message.

The "hidden curriculum" had become a *rite de passage* for the young, says Illich, a ritual with its own doctrines or values:

1. Only education acquired in a school through a graded process of consumption is valuable;
2. The degree of success an individual will enjoy in society depends on the amount of learning he consumes;
3. And, learning about the world is more important, more valuable, than learning from it.

The first doctrine or value allows the schools a monopoly on education. Doctrine two legitimatizes existing social and economic distinctions by creating a new class structure, a "meritocracy," specious in essence because schooling in no way guarantees occupational competence. And the third doctrine allows the schools to discredit most men's most important teacher, experience. In sum, what the schools teach, says Peter Schrag, in speaking in *Saturday Review* of Illich's observations, "is the importance of schooling itself, not worthwhile trades or literacy or any humanly important attitude or skill."[4] And all recent educational improvements and theories fail to some degree or another, concludes Illich, because they leave this "hidden curriculum" of the school unexamined and intact.

The "hidden curriculum" is essentially a product of the medieval heritage of the schools, a myth, a set of assumptions, what Illich calls the "occult foundations". These assumptions spring from a time when men believed that one substance could be changed into another through rather mechanically graded steps, from a time when a *single* ecclesiastical institution governed all education and was the single infallible source of authority on all matters. This set of assumptions, this myth, has been weakened obviously, because alchemy is no longer the ultimate explanation of physical reality, and because most people no longer believe in human infallibility. However, the myth has not totally collapsed because many people still believe in learning by stages and because they still believe rigid authority is necessary to educate the young. The myth not only still has some of its original life, but as the force behind the ritual of schooling it has found new strength from its harmony with the modern myth

of the middleclass competitive free-enterprise industrial society. The old myth, and its consequent ritual, fills the needs of the propagators of the new myth by furnishing the capitalist industrial system with graduates who have a high level of tolerance for elder authorities, who possess peculiar respect for order and conformity, who willingly and docilely submit to disciplined work even when its relevance is not apparent, who obey orders and refuse individual responsibility, who see all elements of life, and death, as packaged commodities. These are Herbert Marcuse's "one-dimensional men" and worse, certified robots, creatures who at thirty years of age are not interested in (and cannot quote) Shakespeare because they "had that" ten years ago, they *used* it then and they have put the battered remains of the commodity away in the attic lumber rooms of their heads forever more. These are computers who can tolerate only their own kind, machines with "paper" souls composed of birth-citizenship-high school-college certificates and marriage-driving-retail licenses and housing-stock-auto titles and bank-credit-identification cards. These are the ultimate products of schools, unchallenged until now. But Illich claims that true education is soon to be divorced from "schooling," and the divorce will be speeded up by three forces.

Secondly, public libraries do not serve all patrons equally at any time of their lives: they do not tend to serve "young adults" well,[10] they serve the housewife rather poorly, and they hardly serve the poor and the aged at all.[11] And thirly, public libraries do not provide all of the available resources for learning that they might reasonable be expected to provide. They, of course, cannot be expected to provide all learning resources unless taxpayers furnish the money for librarians to buy the world. However, it does seem reasonable, insofar as the librarian claims the province of the preserver and distributor of the recorded word, that the library might possess more of a variety of resources in the most basic communications media. After all, books are only a small fraction of the devices men have for communicating. Yet only they are the central focus of most public libraries. The supply of tape recorders, cartridges, projectors and films (the most moving medium, no pun intended, of this century,) television kinescopes and television sets for watching *The Forsyte Sage, The Electric Company,* or *Free To Be You and Me*, sizable record collections and phonographs, and facilities for making cheap reproductions of documents in demand, are abysmally inadeuuate in most public libraries. Public libraries as a class of in-

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stitutions certainly provide few other "objects for learning" than books, and those they provide largely to an educated well-to-do middle class.[12]

The librarians' record in achieving the first goal of an Illich kind of education is not very impressive, and leaves no room for self-satisfaction. Of course, it must be admitted that librarians have never attempted such an achievement. My object is not to fault them, but only to ask the question, suggested by Illich: Shouldn't it be the libraries striving to provide all who want to learn with all of the available media resources at any time? And can the libraries accomplish this goal if schools continue to hold a monopoly on education? Can libraries accomplish this goal if more money is put into "schooling", only to have less left over for institutions like the public library — institutions which could be truly open and educative, in which more people might learn for themselves? Can a public library, which could be open to all, really accomplish anything at all in competition for money with public grade and high schools, which serve only some of the young? According to John Holt, "In most places the schools are probably twenty to fifty times as large as the library and spend twenty to fifty times as much money."[13] Should not this kind of imbalance be changed?

And as long as questions are being asked, should librarians in any substantial way attempt the achievement of Illich's second and third goals of a real educational system? As far as the second goal is concerned, public libraries do not now put those who want to share what they know in contact with those who want to learn it, with two weak exceptions: one, there is little evidence of education by skill models or peer groups except for a few feeble efforts at "discussion" groups for neighborhood problems or best-sellers; two, the only evidence of people contacting people in a regularly consistent way in the library is through the medium of books, readers contacting authors — and here librarians' detachment is considerable despite the continual condemnation of impartiality and indifference from Berelson to Bundy. Public librarians unfortunately tend to make the reader's contact with the author too much of a "do-it-yourself" project.[14] Is "impartial service" possible for the librarian who genuinely cares about books, people, and their relationship to one another? Shouldn't the public library, for example, with the greatest advertised collection of directories in an area, be bringing, on a regular basis, people in need of information to those who can help?

Illich's third goal, furnishing all who wish to present an issue to the public with an opportunity to do so, has been attempted to some degree by the public library. Library rooms have frequently been opened to local groups and societies under very liberal conditions. But the abilities of such groups to reach the public from "block" clubs may be the exception. Should the library be making more means available for local groups to reach the public: typewriters, mimeograph machines, electronic recording devices, photography equipment and the like? And should the public library be more actively aiding local groups to research and acquire the information they wish to take to the public? Should the public library develop a permanent public forum?

Illich's educational goals may or may not suggest to public librarians some sins of omission. I think they should at least provide a little self-doubt and questioning.

It is another of Illich's ideas, however, the one of the "hidden curriculum," that I think suggest more serious and unfortunate problems for librarians. To be blunt, I think this idea points to some definite acts, perhaps sins of commission of the part of public librarians in general. What hidden structure, what implicit unfounded values and attitudes of the li-

brary constitute a course of instruction for the regular library user? I would suggest but a vew as grounds for further reflection amongst all of us.

What does the almost exclusive distribution of books by public libraries imply? Does it suggest that librarians are aware of the value of other media? Does it suggest that librarians are aware, a la McLuhan, of the dangers of a reading-only-approach to reality?

What does the academic and industrial classificaton of knowledge in libraries say about their school and business commitments? What does the absence of a focus on the categories most people focus on (i.e., men, women, love, sex, sustenance, shelter, war, life, death) say about libraries' concern for most people, and their way of thinking? What do displays on "Book Week" and whaling, and not on a war which badly crippled the nation (and its libraries), and not on sex education while eleven and twelve year olds "magically" conceive, and not on racism while that idiot Archie Bunker drivels on Saturday after Saturday, demonstrate about librarians' courage, conviction, and sincere desire to serve the public interest? What does the neutral serve-yourself approach to information tell the reflective reader about the public library's concern for the kind of information it distributes? What do the patrons themselves, white, alert, well-dressed, neat, orderly, crowding into the modern suburban library on Saturday afternoon, imply about public library service? What does emptiness of the ghetto library on the southern-end of a nearby city tell us? Features such as these make up the obvious "hidden curriculum," the implied values of the public libraries. If one analyzes the less obvious "hidden curriculum," say the book selection policies, what does one conclude? What values does the employee situation suggest, when one finds non-whites nearly nowhere, when one finds few women at the top of the top libraries, when one finds miserable salaries at the bottom? Do librarians care about themselves?

The public library should amend the unfortunate elements in its "hidden curriculum," first for its own salvation, and second for the salvation of people most in need of salvation. It has to look to its own salvation before some public officials, unhappy for personal or political or moral motives with their libraries, take courage and inform their public how much it is costing the many to serve the few. The public library must make amends as soon as possible to have the public "on its side" in time. This is more and more true as federal money is withdrawn and libraries are forced to rely on local revenues. But more importantly, it must help those most in need, those already most cheated by the society: the elderly, the black, the Indian, the Spanish American, the poor, the young, those outside "The Establishment." To make the change the public library must rid itself of its cool concentration on things, on I-it-relationships in the words of Martin Buber, and must think about developing some greater sense of people, some I-Thou relationships. Librarians must decide to begin to build their libraries as information and life-education centers for all.[15] They will have to decide, to choose to undertake the job, for only they can make effective library innovations.[16] They will have to focus the library on humanity. The National Commission on Libraries and Information Science will not. They will have to make the library a place for reference service directories and the storing of learning objects, they will have to bring people together and give them the stuff to learn, they will have to make the library the information center for all ages and with all resources. Only they, the individual public librarians, in regional, district, local or mobile libraries, can finally determine, however much or little they be aided by the community, what variety of services will achieve the purpose of serving people. A librarian hardly needs to limit the public library institution for want of alternatives given

the many suggestions made in recent years. Whatever techniques, devices, and services the librarians choose, however, Illich implies they have the choice of only a single role. If a librarian be a person of good conscience then he or she must choose the role or *ombudsman* between people and the source of the means of learning.[17] The librarian in a public institution must choose, because, as Illich implies and Buckminster-Fuller states, human beings for thousands of years have complained about a host of social evils. Now men and women of good will who are aware of the whole panorama of these ills, who are aware of how very long they have been with us, know that for the first time the major powers at least have the wealth and technological know-how to do something about many of these evils. Those of good will must choose to actively compel the major governmental and industrial powers, and must actively help those powers to use their wealth and know-how to begin to ameliorate the evils of the human conditions. Or else they must allow the major powers to misuse their wealth and know-how, they must admit their good will is nothing more than a hollow show, and they must accept themselves as moral cowards. There is no middle ground. There is no reason to delay decision, there is every reason to make one. Which way will the public librarian go? Let me suggest that Illich offers some persuasive reasoning for choosing the humane course.

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LAW FOR CITIZENS—

HOW TO MEET THEIR NEEDS IN ACADEMIC AND PUBLIC LIBRARIES

Interest in law is at an all-time high in the United States and throughout the world. We live in an increasingly complicated, crowded and rapidly changing society where various powers and relationships must be regulated by law if chaos is to be avoided and civilization is to survive.

Words and phrases such as environmental impact, nuisance, air, water or noise pollution, civil rights, consumer protection, no-fault insurance, price and wage controls, products liability, revenue sharing, arraignment, indictment, impeachment, sexual discrimination in employment, are commonplace on TV and in newspaper headlines. There was a time in this great free country of ours when a citizen might live a lifetime with little or no contact with the law save some domestic relations and property matters such as drawing a will, probating the estate of a deceased relative, buying or selling real property, or perhaps seeking a divorce or adopting a child. The family lawyer was ready and usually able to serve his clientele. This is no longer true because every individual becomes involved with the law early in life and on a much broader scale with taxation, social security, employment status and automobile problems to begin with. The personal involvement of people with the law is now so intense that labor unions seek comprehensive legal coverage for their members from management as they did health protection a generation ago. It is understandable then that public and academic libraries, and reference librarians in particular, are confronted with the problem of how far they should go in providing legal resources for their patrons.

There is now so much legal data that even lawyers are facing an information crisis. Certification of lawyers in legal specialties has begun in some jurisdictions. Because the leadership of the bar recognizes the necessity for skill in practice involving distinct areas of the law practitioners must constantly educate themselves to stay abreast of new developments. Courses in legal specialties are sponsored by the profession to afford lawyers an opportunity to remain effective. Educational programs for certification are underway in taxation, estate planning, criminal advocacy, personal injury litigation, to name a few. In addition, lawyers' needs for data on the factual side of the causes they handle are increasing and they must look to public, university, and special libraries for the answers.

Librarians, including law librarians are prohibited by law from practicing law and they should not attempt to avoid such regulation by any means. But neither should they use this general legal principle as an excuse for non-service to patrons who are confronted with a legal problem. Sources of legal information are no different from sources of other factual information. Where known they should be pointed out to the user as a service of the library. It is interpretation of the legal data the patron has at hand that the librarian must avoid. Opinions published by the American Bar Association concerning unauthorized practice of law may provide guidance on the limitations involved and this information will be of assistance not only to librarians but to members of other professions as well. The librarian should be aware of legal referral services and be prepared to refer patrons to them for the purpose of hiring a suitable lawyer.

Patrons and librarians should realize that in law there is little precision and two legal documents may be in direct conflict with each other. A few basic considerations should be kept in mind:

First is our dual system of Federal and State law involving constitutional and jurisdictional problems. A Federal or State statute may be declared unconstitutional for variance with applicable Federal Constitutional requirements as the Constitution is the sup-

reme law of the land. Parties in a legal controversy may find that the laws from one or more jurisdictions may apply in their controversy to be resolved only by the application of what is known as "conflicts-of-law" principles.

Second, in our Anglo-American legal system there are two principal sources of legal authority — legislation and court decisions. Since it is the function of courts to determine the law, and statutes are part of that law, it is often said that the courts have the "last word." Statutory construction as applied by the courts may vary substantially from what the words appear to say in plain printed language as the courts may look to legislative history to determine the intent of the legislative body in enacting the statute.

For these reasons, among others, library patrons should be admonished to secure legal counsel even though they believe they have the exact answer to their legal problem in print as it appears in library resources.

For many years non-law libraries in the business administration, criminology and police sciences, and medical areas have been expanding their collections of legal materials. The library serving the School of Criminology at the University of California, Berkeley, and the great Jackson Library at Stanford come to mind as examples. So too have some of the nation's largest public libraries. Among smaller libraries doing an effective job is the Contra Costa County California Library in Pleasant Hill where the memorial room dedicated to the late John Baldwin, Member of Congress, houses an excellent basic law collection for the California layman. Non-law libraries designated as Federal depositories have an extraordinary opportunity to provide better legal service to their patrons by selecting item

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categories with an eye toward law. No cost other than that of processing the materials and housing them is involved for the local library. Acquisition guidance in this area may be found in the legal bibliographic works cited later in this article.

With these background comments in mind we reach the primary purpose of this article which is to provide the general library with guidelines for serving the legal needs of its patrons within a justifiable budget. At the outset it should be understood that law libraries should be an integral part of any comprehensive library network system. Common sense and stark economic necessity require that duplication of legal materials within a general library be limited to essentials when a good law library with sensible regulations concerning public use is nearby. So too should law libraries seek to avoid unnecessary duplication of non-legal materials in their collections when an accessible general library is nearby or part of a network. Some titles are of such basic importance that they must be duplicated and they are indicated here. That the traffic of use justifies their acquisition and no real waste is involved should be recognized by budget-conscious officials.

Following is a basic bibliography of legal materials for public, school, college and university libraries. Items marked with a star are of primary importance. An asterisk appears on all items available to Federal Depository Libraries.

It is customary to refer to law books as works of primary or secondary authority. Primary authority consists of legislation in force and judicial decisions. In the strict sense secondary authority is not legal authority. It embodies indexes and evaluators of the law such as tables of cases, digests, indexes, citators, encyclopedias, treatises and periodical articles. Primary authority is law; secondary authority is someone's opinion of what it is or an aid to finding it.

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Legal Bibliographic Tools

1. *Directory of Law Libraries.* Compiled by the American Association of Law Libraries. Geographical listing of law libraries with 10,000 or more volumes; key personnel listed alphabetically.

2. *Effective Legal Research.* 1953 ed. The law librarians' "bible" of bibliographic information for law-book sets.

3. *How to Find the Law.* 7th edition. This basic guide to legal research by recognized law librarians discusses types of legal books, explains their use and sets forth actual examples and illustrations. Research methods used by lawyers are explained and analyzed.

4. *California Legal Research Handbook – State and Federal.* National coverage of legal treatises and secondary legal literature, comprehensive Federal bibliographic information for courts and administrative agencies, actual problems showing how principal legal tools are used in a coordinated research approach. Excellent instructional material for the layman in the use of legal sources.

5. *Law Books in Print.* Comprehensive legal bibliography of secondary research materials printed in English.

6. *Index to Legal Periodicals.* Well worth having in a public library for data on the frontier of the law. Requests should be made to law libraries for the legal serials cited.

In a network approach to legal materials a bibliographic center should contain all of the above-cited publications.

Legal Reference Essentials

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7. *Martindale-Hubbell Law Directory*. Lawyer Referral Committees and Agencies, Lawyers Aid and Defender offices are listed by state, county and city; all known attorneys are listed geographically; state and country law digests; vital information on important aspects of the legal profession.

☆

8. *Black's Law Dictionary*, or
   Ballentine's Law Dictionary, or
   Bouvier's Law Dictionary
   At least one legal dictionary should be included in the reference collection of every library.
   Federal Legal Materials
   Constitution

☆

9. *The Constitution of the United States: Analysis and Interpretation*. A magnificent federal document that deserves a place in every library. A future edition, now in process, will be supplemented with pocket parts.

Statutory Materials

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10. *United States Code Annotated and U.S. Code Congressional and Administrative News Service*. Medium-sized and large public libraries should consider the Federal statutory law with court-decision annotations essential for their collections, or
    U.S. Code Service, or
    *U.S. Code** (Not annotated and difficult to use because of supplements format)
11. *Statutes at Large**. Contains non-codified law as well as all statutory law codified in U.S. Code.

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12. *Congressional Index*. Essential for coverage of bills being considered by the Congress.
13. *Digest of Public General Bills**. Official digest prepared for all Federal Bills.
14. Bills*. One library in a network or region should collect all Federal bills and related documents, and keep them in order on a current basis. This is a monumental task for large staffs only.
15. Legislative history materials including: Congressional *Record**, Committee Reports*, Hearings*, Documents* and the *Journals* of both houses*.

State counterparts to the Federal statutory materials exist and should be collected by the larger libraries in a region. Interlibrary loan procedures are important in this area.

☆

The State's annotated code is an item of essential importance, as is any local ordinance code that may exist for the jurisdiction involved. If a state documentary depository system exists, session laws should be selected, but purchase of these by non-law libraries is not recommended unless the code compilation is so poor that these chronologically arranged laws become essential.

Administrative Regulation

☆

16. *Code of Federal Regulations**. Orderly arrangement of the general and permanent rules published in the Federal Register by Federal executive departments and agencies.
17. *Federal Register**. Presidential Documents — Proclamations, Executive Orders, Rules and Regulations, Proposed Rule Making, Notices.
18. *Weekly Compilation of Presidential Documents**. Transcripts of news conferences, messages to Congress, public speeches, remarks and statements, other Presidential

materials issued by the White House.

State and local counterparts should also be considered. For example, California and many of the larger states have an *Administrative Code and Register*. Larger cities have similar documentation.

The looseleaf services produced by the Bureau of National Affairs, Commerce Clearing House, Prentice-Hall and other publishers are of great utility in this area of the law. Librarians with specific problems should refer to the publishers' catalogs.

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19. Commerce Clearing House, Inc. *Standard federal tax reports*. Looseleaf.
    U.S. Master Tax Guide, or
    Prentice-Hall, Inc. *Federal tax library*. Looseleaf.
    Federal tax handbook.

Federal taxation is now so important in law that many commercial, domestic relations and estate planning matters revolve around it. Any sizable public library should subscribe to one of the looseleaf services. Smaller libraries should have the guide or handbook as minimum coverage.

The Supreme Court

20. United States Reports*, or

☆

21. *The Supreme Court Reporter & U.S. Supreme Court Digest* – Part of the West Publishing Company Key — Number system of digesting court reports, or

☆

22. *Lawyers Edition & U.S. Supreme Court Digest* – Includes annotations written by Lawyers Cooperative Publishing Company staff.

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23. *U.S. Law Week* – Supreme Court docket, proceedings and opinions. Vital for current coverage, or
24. *Supreme Court Bulletin*.
25. *The Supreme Court Review* – Analytic review of Supreme Court developments for the year.

Other Federal Courts

26. *Federal Reporter*. Reports of the United States Courts of Appeal. If no law library is accessible larger libraries may wish to acquire this set.
27. *Federal Supplement*. Reports of the United States District Courts.

As a general rule, non-law libraries will rely upon the closest law library for court reports and their auxiliary tools — the digests and citators. Digests in effect subject-classify or index case law which is published in chronological order. West Publishing Company's "Key-Number" system is an outstanding example of an effective and comprehensive digest system. Shepard's Citations system indicates whether case or statute law is still effective in the light of subsequent developments — later statutes or case decisions.

State and Federal court decisions are a desirable acquisition only if a law library is in a remote location or otherwise inaccessible. Heretofore space required was a primary consideration in considering acquisition, but West Publishing Company is in the process of producing an ultra-microfiche edition of the first series of the National Reporter system covering court decisions from all appellate courts of the United States, and Oceana Publications is issuing a microfilm edition of all Pre-Reporter official state reports. The expense of huge law report sets may make this category a low priority item for all but the largest non-law libraries.

Politics & Congressional Coverage

28. *Congressional Quarterly Weekly Report* – An expensive service that

may justify itself in terms of personnel time saved. For large libraries. Contains solid factual data acquired by research and reporting on political factors involved in legislation.

29. *Congressional Monitor* – Weekly subject listing of new legislation; listing of committee prints, hearings, calendars. Computerized daily print-out of data in House Calendar and Congressional Record.
30. *National Journal* – Reports, checklist, index. Intelligence on federal policy making.
31. *Congressional Information Service* – Announcement of all Congressional publications, indexed catalog of all Congressional publications. *CIS/Annual* provides citations to hearings, committee prints, documents, provides means of tracing predecessor or related bills; *CIS/Index & Annual* provide master index to contents of all publications issued by Congress, including testimony of individuals and organizations at hearings. *CIS/Microfiche Library* includes copies of all documents.

Legal Encyclopedias

32. *Corpus Juris Secundum*. Provides encyclopedic coverage of the law. The General Index Law Chart is a practical working index of the standard law titles under seven divisions: Persons, property, contracts, torts crimes, remedies, government. West Publishing Company also publishes state encyclopedias for Illinois, Indiana, Maryland, Michigan, and Pennsylvania. Shepard's Citations publishes an encyclopedic summary of Illinois law.

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33. *American Jurisprudence 2d.* Encyclopedic coverage with 429 titles. Useful in conjunction with the Total Client-Service Library.

Lawyers Co-Operative Publishing Company publishes state encyclopedias for California, Florida, Ohio, New York and Texas.

Legal Texts and Treatises for Libraries

Bibliographic tools useful in a subject approach to texts and treatises were indicated at the beginning of this bibliographic section.

West Publishing Company's (34) Basic Law Text Series exemplifies this type of legal literature:

Administrative Law, Davis, 1971
Agency, Seavey, 1964
Contracts, Calamari, 1970
Corporations, Henn, 1970
Corporations, Henn, 1970
Criminal Law, La Fave, 1972
Domestic Relations, Clark, 1963
Evidence, McCormick, 1972
Federal Courts, Wright, 1970
Federal Estate & Gift Taxation, Lowndes, 1962
Federal Income Taxation, Chommie, 1968
Insurance, Keeton, 1971
Mortgages, Osborne, 1970
Oil & Gas, Hemingway, 1971
Partnership, Crane, 1968
Real Property, Burby, 1963
Sales, Nordstrom, 1970
Torts, Prosser, 1971
Trusts, Bogert, 1963
Uniform Commercial Code, White & Summers, 1972
Urban Planning & Development Control, Hagman, 1971

These books present the law in rudimentary form and are, in effect, surveys of the particular subjects.

The Annotated Reports series entitled (35) *American Law Reports* and *American Law Reports-Federal* should not be overlooked by larger non-law libraries. The ALR annotations note specific points of law in text form with analysis. Cases in point from all jurisdictions form the basis of the annotations, but there is specific data for each jurisdiction contributing law in the regular series. ALR-Federal would receive higher priority for purchase in a large public library. The annotations are essentially mini-treatises, and an elaborate system of indexes, digests and citators accompanies them. Selection of significant case law is the underlying principle of the series.

Popular Works on Law and The Legal Profession

Legal histories are often characterized by a greater degree of objectivity than general histories which may be weighted with personal philosophies in the description of people and events. The nature of the adversary process tends to limit bias and the law provides records which are seldom destroyed, though they may temporarily be held in secrecy. (36) Theodore Plucknett's *A Concise History of the Common Law* is the classic Anglo-American work.

Among the works on American legal history which should have a place in academic and public libraries are (37) *Readings in American Legal History,* by Mark DeWolfe Howe, (38) *Law in American History,* prepared by the Charles Warren Center for Studies in American History, (39) *The Life of the Law; American Legal History, 1776-1973,* by Bernard Schwartz. Two volumes have been published under the Oliver Wendell Holmes Devise for the *History of the Supreme Court of the United States:* 1 — "Antecedents and Beginnings to 1801," and 6 — "Reconstruction and reunion, 1864-1868," Part 1, but the reader should be prepared for a heavy tract and slow going. Raoul Berger's (40) *Congress v. the Supreme*

Court and (41) *Impeachment: The Constitutional Problems* are as scholarly as they are timely in the light of current events.

Fictional works with a legal theme are many — James Cozzens' *The Just and the Unjust,* Traver's (John Voelker's) *Anatomy of a Murder,* Al Dewlen's *Twilight of Honor* and Allen Drury's *Advise and Consent* show keen insights on the nature of law and politics. William L. Prosser's *Judicial Humorist* indicates that the jealous mistress is lively as well. And (42) David Mellinkoff has authored a great book on *The Language of the Law.*

The reference librarian will be called upon for vocational guidance. (43) *The Pre-Law Handbook,* (44) *Barron's Guide to Law Schools* and (45) *How to Score High on the Law-school Admission Test,* are essentials in this area.

The catalog of (46) *Anglo-American Law Collections,* University of California Law Libraries, Berkeley and Davis, with Library of Congress Class K added, and its projected supplements, constitutes the best available retrospective and current classification of law books in accordance with the recently issued Library of Congress classification scheme for legal materials. Libraries with legal collections may thus avoid the arduous process of determining reclassification numbers on their own by reference to this work. All libraries will find it a useful tool for network use and interlibrary loans inasmuch as it covers all titles included in two of the greatest Western law libraries. The *Annual Survey of American Law* (47) provides a succinct summary analysis of major developments each year in the principal legal fields.

Law Book Publishing

Prices of law books generally shock the librarian accustomed to purchasing trade books produced for a national audience. The name of the game in publishing profitability is "volume". At least two factors limit volume in law-book production:

> First, law books are produced for an elite profession that is limited in numbers, and books are produced for specialties within that profession.
>
> Second, books may be limited as to jurisdiction, e.g., to Federal or State practice which further reduces the possible markets.

The physical make-up and editorial product of leading law-book publishers ranges from superlative to excellent. Bindings are made for heavy use and it is interesting to note that, on average, law books are heavier and larger than trade books.

Characteristically law books are equipped for some form of continuation. The librarian continually awaits the next episode in an endless drama as legislative bodies grind out new statutes and courts render new decisions. Law books may be dangerous if they are not kept current, yet lawyers require a complete record of the past to afford their clients full representation.

There are two principal families of publications in the American law-book business with definite family resemblances: West Publishing Company, and Lawyers Co-Operative Publishing Company — Bancroft-Whitney Company. The former bases its philosophy on complete coverage while the latter concentrates on selectivity of significant legal developments.

West's "Key Number" digest system is to lawyers what Melville Dewey's decimal classification system is to librarians. It arose out of a need for lawyers to quickly find a point of law in the monumental mass of chronologically arranged law reports. Every American appellate decision is subject classified in accordance with this clas-

ification scheme. The "Key Number" is West's hallmark and binds together the largest legal publisher in the United States. Key-numbered headnotes in every appellate decision make up the American Digest System which provides access to every American law case since 1958. In addition, West is heavy in annotated statutes, publishes a national legal encyclopedia with Key-Number references, and is a leading producer of legal texts and treatises. It recently entered the college and university textbook market.

Lawyers Co-Operative Publishing Company is the publisher of the Annotated Reports Series described earlier in this article under treatises. The "Annotation" is its hallmark and an interrelationship exists between the members of the "Am Jur" family that make up the Total Client Service Library consisting of Am Jur Legal Forms 2d, Am Jur Pleading and Practice Forms, Am Jur Proof of Facts, Am Jur Trials, American Jurisprudence 2d encyclopedia, Supreme Court Reports, Lawyers Edition, certain local legal encyclopedias, state reports and codes, and the ALR series.

The following table indicates selected American legal publishers and their fields of interest:

American Law Institute	4025 Chestnut St. Philadelphia, Pa. 19104	Restatements; ALI/ABA Practice Books
W. H. Anderson Co.	646 Main St. Cincinnati, Ohio 45201	Legal treatises and Texts
Bureau of National Affairs	1231 25th St. Washington, D.C. 20037	Looseleaf Services-Administrative Law, Labor Law, U.S. Law Week
Banks-Baldwin Law Publishing Co.	1904 Ansel Road Cleveland, Ohio 44106	Legal treatises
Matthew Bender & Co., Inc.	235 E. 45th Street New York, N.Y. 10017	Looseleaf treatises and practice books
Clark Boardman Co., Ltd.	435 Hudson Street New York, N.Y. 10014	Practice books, texts and treatises, patent, copyright, etc.
Bobbs-Merrill Co.	4300 W. 62nd St. Indianapolis, Ind. 46268	Legal texts and treatises
Callaghan & Co.	6141 N. Cicero Avenue Chicago, Ill. 60646	Law and tax publications
Chelsea House Publishers	70 W. 40th Street New York, N.Y. 10018	Law publications
Commerce Clearing House, Inc.	4025 W. Peterson Ave. Chicago, Ill. 60646	Current tax and business law subjects
Dennis & Co.	251 Main Street Buffalo, N.Y. 14203	Legal serials, texts and treatises
Foundation Press, Inc.	170 Old Country Rd. Mineola, N.Y. 11501	Law, business, political science. Casebooks.

Fountainhead Publishers, Inc.	475 Fifth Ave. New York, N.Y. 10017	Law, political science
Burt Franklin	235 E. 44th St. New York, N.Y. 10017	Law, political science. Reprints.
The Harrison Co.	178 Pryor Street, S.W. Atlanta, Ga. 30303	Law texts and treatises.
William S. Hein Co.	1285 Main St. Buffalo, N.Y. 14209	Legal serials, texts and treatises. Reprints.
Lawyers Co-Operative Publishing Co.-Bancroft-Whitney	Aqueduct Building Rochester, N.Y. 14603	ALR: AmJur; statutes, texts, treatises, etc.
Legal & Tax Publishing Co.	8259 Niles Center Rd. Skokie, Ill. 60076	Law and tax publications.
Little, Brown & Co.	34 Beacon Street Boston, Mass. 02106	Legal texts and treatises. Casebooks.
McGraw-Hill Book Co.	1221 Avenue of the Americas New York, N.Y. 10020	Legal texts and treatises.
Oceana Publications	Dobbs Ferry, N.Y. 10522	Docket series, Legal Almanac Series, Glanville Publications, Trans-Media Publishing Co., Inc., International law.
Philosophical Library, Inc.	15 E. 40th Street New York, N.Y. 10016	Law publications.
Fred B. Rothman & Co.	57 Leuning Street South Hackensack, N.J. 07606	Legal serials, texts and treatises, book catalogs, reprints, etc.
Shepard's Citations	Colorado Springs, Colorado	Citators
The Allen Smith Co.	1435 N. Meridian St. Indianapolis, Ind. 46202	Law publications.
Charles C. Thomas	301 E. Lawrence Ave. Springfield, Ill. 62703	Law, police science.
Thomas Law Book Co.	1909 Washington Ave. St. Louis, Mo. 63103	Law publications.
West Publishing Co.	50 Kellogg Blvd. St. Paul, Minn. 55102	National Reporter System, American Digest System, statutes, texts, treatises, casebooks, etc.

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2. Price, Miles O. & Bitner, Harry. *Effective Legal Research*. South Hackensack, N.J. 07606. 57 Leuning Street, Fred B. Rothman & Co. Reprint of 1953 ed. $17.50.
3. *How to Find the Law*, 7th ed. St. Paul, West, 1974. (In Process)
4. *California Legal Research Handbook – State & Federal*. Walnut Creek, Calif. 94596, P.O. Box 5512, Lex-Cal-Tex Press, 1971. $25.00.
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